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from the Author's Own

ORIENTAL COMMERCE;

CONTAINING

A GEOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTION

OF THE PRINCIPAL PLACES IN

The East Indies, China, and Japan,

WITH

Their Produce, Manufactures, and Trade,

INCLUDING THE COASTING OR COUNTRY TRADE FROM PORT TO PORT;

ALSO

THE RISE AND PROGRESS OF THE TRADE

OF THE VARIOUS

EUROPEAN NATIONS WITH THE EASTERN WORLD,

PARTICULARLY THAT OF THE

ENGLISH EAST INDIA COMPANY,

FROM THE

DISCOVERY OF THE PASSAGE ROUND THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE

TO THE

PRESENT PERIOD;

42675

WITH

An Account of the Company's Establishments, Revenues, Debts, Assets, &c. at Home and Abroad.

Deduced from authentic Documents and founded upon practical Experience obtained in the Course of Seven Voyages to India and China,

BY WILLIAM MILBURN, ESQ.

OF THE HONOURABLE EAST INDIA COMPANY'S SERVICE

VOLUME THE SECOND.

LONDON:

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MADRAS.

Or Fort St. George, the principal settlement of the English on the Coast of Coromandel, and to which all the others are subordinate, is in latitude 13° 4′ North, and longitude 80° 22′ East. It is the seat of a Governor and Council, subject to the controul of the Governor General.

Madras is divided into two parts, the Fort, or White Town, and the Black Town. The Fort stands close to the seaside, and is one of the best in the possession of the British nation; and although not of so regular a design as Fort William in Calcutta, yet from the greater facility of relieving it by sea, and the natural advantage of the ground, it may on the whole be deemed at least equal to it.

In the middle of the fort stands the old or original fortress, which was erected on the first arrival of the English here; it is about 100 yards square, surrounded with battlements, having four bastions and two

gates, one to the westward, where the main guard is kept, the other to the eastward facing the sea. This building is now converted into the offices of Government, and the town residences of many of the Company's civil servants. To the southward stands the church, a spacious and neat building, at the back of which is the residence of the Governor. To the northward of the old fort stands the exchange, recently built, which is a magnificent building; on the top is a lighthouse, erected with the sanction of Government, in December 1796, which is of essential service to ships coming into the roads in the night. The light is 90 feet above the level of the sea at high water; it may be seen from the decks of the Company's ships above 17 miles, and from their mastheads near 26 miles. There are many large and handsome houses within the fort, but the Company's servants and merchants generally reside in the country; they repair to the fort in the morning for the transaction of business, and return home in the afternoon.

The Black Town is to the northward of the fort, separated by a spacious esplanade; it is near four miles in circumference, and surrounded with fortifications sufficiently strong to resist the attempts of cavalry to surprise and plunder it. Since the irruption of Hyder Ally in 1780, they have been considerably strengthened. This town is the residence of the Gentoo, Moorish, Armenian, and Portuguese merchants, and of those Europeans who do not hold situations under the Government. The Custom House, and the houses of some of the merchants at Black Town are large and elegant buildings; these with the pagodas and temples have a grand appearance from the sea.

To the southward of the fort stands the country residence of the Governor, and a short distance to the southward of that, is Chepauk, the palace of the Nabob of Arcot. The surrounding country is called the Choultry Plain, and is covered with the houses and gardens of the Europeans, most of them large and beautiful; and from the superior quality of the chunam, or mortar, used in their erection, have an appearance of being built with marble.

The Choultry Plain commences about a mile and a quarter S.W. of Fort St. George, from which it is separated by two rivers. The one, called the River of Triplicane, winding from the west, joins the sea about 1000 yards to the south of the glacis. The other coming from the N.W. passes the western side of the Black Town, the extremity of which is high ground, which the river rounds, and continues to the east, until within 100 yards of the sea, where it washes the foot of the glacis, and then turning to the south, continues parallel with the beach, until it joins the mouth and bar of the River of Triplicane. From the turning of the river at the high ground, a canal striking to the southward communicates with the River of Triplicane. The low ground, included by the channels of the two rivers and canal, is called the Island, which is near two miles in circumference. About 1200 yards from the strand of the sea is a long bridge, leading from the island over the Triplicane River, to a road which continues south to the town of St. Thomé. Another bridge over the canal, leads to the west, and amongst others to a village called Egmore, from which this bridge takes its name. Coming from the south or west, these two bridges afford the only convenient access to the Fort or White Town, excepting another along the strand of the sea, when the bar of the Triplicane River is choked with sand. All the ground between the St. Thomé Road and the sea is filled with villages and enclosures; and so is that on the left, for half a mile towards the Choultry Plain, from which a road and several smaller passages lead through them to the St. Thomé Road.

The Choultry Plain extends two miles to the westward of the enclosures which bound the St. Thomé road, and terminates on the other side at a large body of water called the Mellapour tank, behind which runs, with deep windings, the Triplicane River. The road from the mount passes two miles and a half under the mound of the tank, and at its issue into the Choultry Plain is a kind of defile, formed by the mound on one side, and buildings with brick enclosures on the other.

As a heavy surf breaks high on the beach, the country boats are employed on all occasions where communication with the shore is requisite. The boats belonging to ships in the roads frequently proceed

to the back of the surf, where they anchor on the outside of it, and wait for the boats from the beach to carry on shore their passengers, &c. It frequently happens, when the weather is unsettled, with a heavy swell rolling in, that the surf is so high as to make it dangerous for any of the country boats to pass to or from the shore; when this is the case, a flag is displayed at the beach-house, which stands near the landing place, to caution all persons on board ships against landing, which should be carefully attended to; for numerous lives have been lost at different times through the temerity of Europeans proceeding to pass through the surf, in defiance of the admonitory signal.

The road is open to all winds, except those from the land, and there is generally a heavy swell tumbling in from the sea, making ships roll and labour excessively. Large ships generally moor in nine fathoms, with the flagstaff W. N. W. about two miles from the shore.

From the beginning of October to the end of December, is considered the most dangerous season to remain in Madras roads, or at any other ports on the Coast of Coromandel, being subject to hurricanes; but if a ship, kept in good condition for putting to sea on the first appearance of a gale, takes advantage of the N. W. wind, which at the commencement of a hurricane blows off the land for three or four hours, there is but little danger to be apprehended; yet many ships, by neglecting to put to sea, have been lost, and their crews perished.

Madras was the first independent station acquired by the English in India. They first obtained permission to trade in 1640, and to erect a fort, to which they gave the name of Fort St. George, and it was rendered subordinate to Bantam. In 1671 a phirmaund was obtained from the King of Golcondah, granting new privileges on payment of an annual rent of 1,200 pagodas.

In 1683, the East India Company, in consequence of the loss of Bantam, constituted Madras a Presidency, from which period it became the principal seat of their trade on the Coast of Coromandel. In 1686 the Company obtained permission to erect a mint. In 1687 it was erected by charter into a Corporation, consisting of a Mayor and ten Aldermen. At this period the population of Fort St. George, and the villages within the Company's bounds, was reported to amount to 300,000 souls.

At the commencement of the war with France, in 1744, Madras was raised to a degree of opulence and reputation that rendered it inferior to none of the European settlements in India, excepting Goa and Batavia; but the fortifications were in a bad state, and the garrison very deficient, not exceeding 200 Europeans fit for duty. In this situation it was attacked by the French, under M. de la Bourdonnais, who began to bombard the town on the 7th of August, which they continued till the 10th, when deputies were sent to the French camp to ascertain what terms would be granted, and if it was possible to procure the ransom of the town; they were honourably treated by M. de la Bourdonnais, who entered into a consultation with them, and offered the following conditions. That the town should be delivered up, and all the English remain prisoners of war; that the articles of the capitulation being settled, those of the ransom should be regulated amicably; that the garrison should be conducted to Fort St. David, and the seamen to Cuddalore. These articles were accepted and signed, upon which the French took possession of the town. The magazines, warehouses, and other places were delivered over to the French Officers and Commissaries, and the English soldiers and seamen were carried on board the French ships in the roads, while the Governor and Council settled the price of the ransom with the French Commodore, at 11 lacs of pagodas, or £440,000 sterling, besides a valuable present to the Commodore, who was willing to evacuate his conquest upon these terms, and leave the English in full possession of their Presidency.

The French Government at Pondicherry at first ratified the treaty of ransom; but on the 20th of September they declared it null and void, so that Commodore De la Bourdonnais was obliged to revoke the treaty: the consequence was, that the British Governor and Council on the 13th of November were carried to Pondicherry, while the rest of the inhabitants were ordered to quit Madras, upon which they dispersed to different places, and left the French in possession of all their effects. The

promise of a ransom was the principal inducement that prevailed on the Governor to make so speedy a surrender; and if the French had not perfidiously broke the engagement, the price of the ransom would have been a favourable circumstance to the East India Company: for the French obtained a booty of silver, woollens, copper, iron, lead, and other articles, to the value of £73,000; in plate, furniture, mint necessaries, and other small articles £12,000; 1,600 bales of piece-goods, 7,000 bags of saltpetre, and 800 candies of redwood, valued at £72,800, besides the Princess Mary East Indiaman, and several other vessels in the roads. The delay that occurred in consequence of this breach of treaty, kept the French fleet in Madras roads longer than they otherwise intended to have staid, and on the 2d of October came on a hurricane, which in the course of a few hours destroyed almost the whole of their ships, and in which twenty other vessels then in the roads were lost, and most of their crews perished. This event prevented any further attempts on the English possessions by the French from Pondicherry. Madras was restored at the peace of Aix la Chapelle.

The French, while in possession, had made several improvements and additions to the slight works they found, which nevertheless rendered the fort little capable of long resistance against the regular approaches of an European enemy, nor did they give any extension to the internal area, which did not exceed 15 acres of ground. Nevertheless, the English let the place remain in the state they received it in from the French, in 1751, until the beginning of the year 1756; when the expectation of another war with that nation, and the reports of the great preparations making in France against India, dictated the necessity of rendering it completely defensible. Accordingly all the coolies, labourers, and tank diggers which the country could supply, were from this time constantly employed on the fortifications; their daily number generally amounted to 4000, men, women, and children, who continued on the works until driven away by the approach of the French, in December, 1758.

An addition had been projected in 1743, by the engineer, Mr. Smith, which included as much ground as the former area of the fort. The ditch which marked its limits, was then dug, and faced with brick, and supplied with water by a communication with the northern river, which at that time ran along the foot of the ancient wall to the west; but on account of the expence, nothing was then raised above the surface, and the naked ditch remained when De la Bourdonnais came before the town, neither an obstruction or advantage to his attack. It was in the same condition in 1756, when the new works were resolved on; and the plan of Mr. Smith having been approved by Mr. Robins, the fortifications on this side were raised in conformity to that projection. To join the new rampart with the old bastion to the S. W. and to gain the ground in the new area which was occupied by the river, its bed was filled up, beginning from the S. W. bastion, with earth dug from the edge of the rising ground of the Black Town, to the N. W. which the excavation removed forty yards farther from the works; but only two thirds of the bed of the river under the old wall had been choked. The river, stopped in its former channel, was directed in another, which environed the west and part of the south face of the new works, washing in some places the foot of the glacis, until it rejoined its former bed at the head of the spit of sand. The old wall of the western side still remained as a retrenchment to capitulate on, in case the outward should be carried. The new extension on this side comprised three large bastions and their outworks. The southern of these three bastions communicated with the old bastion, which stood before on the S.W. angle, by the curtain raised across the former channel of the river, and this curtain increased the south face of the fort from 130 to 210 yards; nevertheless the works on this side were much less defensible than those to the west and north; but the surface of water, and quagmire in the river before it, rendered this front inaccessible, excepting by the labours of a much greater army than the present attack. The ground on the north of the fort gave the besieger much more advantage than on the other sides, and this face was therefore strengthened in proportion. The two former bastions and rampart, as improved and left by the French, were suffered to remain; but the ditch and glacis which they had dug and raised, were the

one filled up, and the other removed further out to admit better works. In the front of the N. W. bastion was raised another, capable of mounting 28 guns; each of the faces was 100 yards in length, and a battalion might be drawn up on its rampart, although a large vacancy was left in the gorge, or back part; to increase the interval towards the former bastion behind, which this was intended to cover; it was front its superior strength called the royal bastion. A demi-bastion corresponding with the royal, was raised before the old N. E. bastion, which stood on the beach of the sea, which however the demi-bastion did not entirely envelope; for its right hand, or east face, extending in a line parallel to the sea, adjoined to the shoulder angle of the northern face of the old bastion, leaving this face free to fire forward, but confining the extent of ground it commanded, to the same width as the space between the east face of the demi-bastion and the sea; to the westward the old bastion had two guns clear of the demi-bastion, which supplied the defence on this side by four guns in the flank, and seven in the northern face. The two new bastions communicated with each other by a broad fausse-bray, that passed along the foot of the old rampart and bastions; this fausse-bray was defended by a stout parapet, seven feet high, which adjoined to the flanks of the new bastions. The ditch on this front was dry, because the ground here was seven feet higher than the level of the canal, which supplied the ditches to the west and south; but a cuvette, or trunch, seven feet deep, and 25 broad, was dug the whole length of the ditch, which before the fausse-bray was 180 feet wide, and before the bastions 90. The covered way of this front was broad and well-palliaded, and contained between the two bastions a large ravelin capable of holding 18 guns, nine in each face. The glacis was excellent, and little was wanting to complete the defence on this side, excepting mines, which the want of time and bricklayers had not allowed. The western face had likewise its covered way palliaded, and glacis, and contained three ravelins, of which that in the middle was the largest. The eastern face extended along the beach of the sea within 20 yards of the surf; but ships could not approach near enough to batter it with any effect, and no guns could be brought to bear upon it by land. Before the sea-gate, which stands in the middle of the curtain, was a battery of 13 guns; 50 yards on the right of this battery was a platform of old standing, with 14 guns to return salutes, which had hitherto been left without a parapet; the original curtain, although nothing more than a brick wall four feet thick, had never been strengthened; but a ditch six feet deep, and ten wide, had lately been dug before it, and a ditch with palisades was intended to have been carried round the battery and the platform, but had not been executed at either. The only danger on this side was from a sudden assault of surprise, which could rarely come by boats landing unawares across the surf: but always, and with ease, by a body of men passing on the edge of it by either of the bastions at the extremity, to prevent which, a row of anchors, backed by palisades and a trench, were extended from the neck of each bastion quite into the surf. No buildings excepting sheds had been raised in the new ground taken in to the westward; and in those of the old, the bomb-proof lodgements were not sufficient for the security of the garrison.

On the 12th of December, 1758, the last of the troops stationed in the different outposts, arrived in the fort, and completed the force with which Madras was to sustain the siege. The whole of the European military, including officers, with 64 topasses, and 89 caffres, incorporated in the companies, amounted to 1758 men: the sepoys were 2,220; the European inhabitants, not military, were 150 men, and they were appropriated, without distinction, to serve out stores and provisions to the garrison. The native boatmen, who alone could ply across the surf, had been retained by special encouragements, and their boats, with their massoolahs or boats, extended under the wall next the sea, where it was supposed not a shot was likely to fall.

The Council of the Presidency, by an unanimous vote, committed the defence of the siege to the Governor, Mr. Pigot, recommending him to consult Colonel Lawrence on all occasions, and on extraordinary emergencies to assemble a Council of the superior officers of the garrison.

The siege was raised the 17th of February, 1759, after the enemy's fire had continued forty-two days. Their retreat was so sudden as to prevent their destroying the Black Town, or taking away all their sick

they took with them a greater part of the stores, but lost and left behind them 52 pieces of cannon, and 150 barrels of good, and the same quantity of bad powder.

The fort fired during the siege 26,554 rounds from their cannon, 7,502 shells from the mortars, and threw 1990 hand-grenades; the musketry expended 200,000 cartridges. In these services were used 1708 barrels of gunpowder; 30 pieces of cannon and five mortars had been dismounted on the works. As many of the enemy's cannon-balls were gathered in the works, or about the defences of the fort, or found in wells and tanks in the Black Town, as the garrison had expended. The enemy threw 8,000 shells of all sorts, of which by far the greatest number were directed against the buildings, all of which lay together in half the area within the walls in the old town to the eastward, and scarce a house remained that was not open to the heavens. During the siege 13 officers were killed, 2 died, 14 wounded, and 4 taken prisoners, in all 33. Of European troops 198 were killed, 52 died in the hospitals, 20 deserted, 122 were taken prisoners, and 167 wounded, in all 579. Of the sepoys and lascars 114 were killed, including officers, 232 wounded, and 440 deserted.

The loss of men sustained by the French army, has never been ascertained. Their force at the commencement of the siege was 3,500 Europeans, 2,000 sepoys, and 2,000 cavalry.

Thus ended a siege, the most strenuous and regular that had ever been carried on in India.

The Government of Fort St. George, and the possessions on the Coasts of Coromandel and Orixa, are vested in a Governor and three Counsellors; vacancies therein are to be supplied by the Court of Directors, the members of Council being taken from the senior merchants, of twelve years' residence in India. If the Court of Directors neglect to fill such stations within two months after the notification of their vacancy, the King may appoint thereto, (and such only to be recalled by the King). The Court of Directors may make provisional appointments, but no salary is to be paid till the parties are in the actual possession of the office; and if a vacancy of Governor occurs when no provisional successor is on the spot, the Counsellor next in rank is to succeed, till a successor arrives, or a person on the spot is appointed. During this interval if the Council should be reduced to one member only, besides the acting Governor, he may call a senior merchant to act as a temporary Counsellor till the arrival of a Governor, or a fresh appointment be made: the salaries are only to be paid for the periods the offices are held, although no provisional successor be on the spot. The Commander in Chief is not to succeed as Governor unless specially appointed so to do. If a vacancy occurs in the Council, and no provisional Counsellor be present, the Governor and Council may appoint a Counsellor from the senior merchants. If the Governor and Commander in Chief are different persons, the latter may be appointed by the Directors the second in Council. The Commander in Chief of India, not being the Governor General, is to have a seat in Council when at Fort St. George. The local Commander in Chief is to have a seat also while the Commander in Chief of India may be present, but not to have a vote.

When in Council, to proceed in the first place to matters proposed by the Governor; and on any question of the Counsellors, the Governor may twice adjourn the discussion for forty-eight hours. All proceedings to be stated as made by the Governor and Council, and signed by the Chief Secretary.

If the Governor differs in opinion with the Council, after they shall have stated their opinions in writing, he may direct such measures thereon as he may see fit, on his own responsibility, so that such measures could have been legally effected with the consent of the Council; but these powers are not to be exercised by Governors succeeding in consequence of death, &c. except provisionally appointed, or confirmed by the Directors. While Governors are acting previous to confirmation, all questions are to be decided by a plurality of voices, the Governor having the casting vote; but in no case to act against the opinion of the Council in judicial matters, or in regulations for the good order of civil government, &c. nor by his own authority to impose any tax, &c. When the Governor General may be at Fort St. George, the powers of the Governor there are to be suspended (except in judicial proceedings) from the proclamation of the Governor

General's arrival, to the proclamation to the contrary, or until his departure; the powers of Government during this period are to be vested in the Governor General, the Governor sitting and acting as a Member of Council.

The Governor and Council are to obey the orders of the Governor General, &c. except they may be repugnant to the orders of the Court of Directors; the Governor General, &c. finally deciding as to the application of those orders. The Governor and Council cannot declare war, &c. but in consequence of orders from Bengal, or from the Court of Directors, and are to make all treaties (if possible) subject to the ratification of the Governor General, &c. and are also to inform the Supreme Government of all things material to be communicated, and also of such as may be required of them.

A Supreme Court of Judicature is established at Madras, consisting of a Chief Justice and three other Judges, who are to be Barristers of not less than five years standing, to be named by the King. The salary of the Chief Justice is £6000 per annum, and each of the other Judges £5000 per annum (in lieu of all fees), to be paid at the exchange of 8s. per pagoda, to commence, when appointments take place in England, on the day of embarkation; and when in India, on the entering on the duties of the office. After seven years' service in India, if the Judges of the Supreme Court return to Europe, the King may direct to be paid out of the Territorial Revenues, to the Chief Justice not more than £1,600, and to each of the other Judges not more than £1,200 per annum, so that no allowances be made exceeding together the salary of a Puisne Judge. The salaries of the Judges to cease on their quitting India.

COINS.

Accounts are kept at this Presidency in star pagodas, funams, and cash; 80 cash make 1 fanam, but the number of fanams in a pagoda varies from 42 to 46. The Bank and European merchants keep their accounts at 12 fanams to a rupee, and 42 fanams to a star pagoda; but the natives keep theirs at 12 fanams 60 cash to a rupee, and 44 fanams 50 cash to a pagoda. In the bazar the pagoda fluctuates from 44 to 46 fanams.

The current coins are pagodas of various kinds, the Arcot rupee, single and double fanams, and copper coins of 20, 10, 5, and 1 cash each, thus divided:

5 cash	make	¼ doodee.
10 cash		1 doodee.
20 cash, or 2 doodees		1 pice.
8 doodees		1 single fanam.
4 pice		1 single fanam.
2 single fanams		1 double fanam.
12 single, or 6 double ditto		1 rupee.
42 single, or 21 double ditto		3½ rupees.
3½ rupees		1 star pagoda.

Gold Coins.—The current or star pagoda, coined at this Presidency, weighs 6 dwts. 22½ grains, is 3 carats worse than standard, and its value at the standard price of gold £3 17s. 10½d. per ounce, is 7s. 5½d.

In the Company's accounts 100 star pagodas are valued at 425 current rupees.

The Madras, or 3 Swamy pagoda, is 20½ carats fine, and 100 of them are equal to 110 star pagodas.

The old pagodas of Negapatam and Tuticorin are about the same weight and value as the star pagodas; but in the later coinage of those pagodas, they are depreciated, being only 18½ carats fine, and 104 of them are equal to 100 star pagodas.

The Porto Novo pagoda is only 17½ carats fine, and passes current 120 for 100 star pagodas.

The Canteris pagoda is of the same value as the Porto Novo, *i. e.* 120 are equal to 100 star pagodas.

The Pondicherry pagoda was originally considered equal in value to the star pagoda; but its standard has been lowered to 17 carats, and even less.

The following is the relative value of the different kinds of pagodas and other coins current at Madras.

100 Madras pagodas		110 star pagodas	6 Canteria pagodas		1 star pagoda
90,909 ditto		100 ditto	45 Madras fanams		5 ditto
100 star pagodas		120 Porto Novo do.	37½ ditto		1 Porto Novo ditto
83,333 ditto		100 ditto	30 Shooly ditto		1 star ditto
350 Arcot rupees	make	100 star ditto	16½ Coily ditto	make	1 ditto
49½ Madras fanams		1 Madras ditto	46 ditto 29,68 ditto		1 Bahauder pagoda
35 ditto 54, 88 cash		1 Canteria ditto	1 star pagoda		97 dec. of 1 ditto
16 cash		1 ditto fanam	1 star pagoda		1,26dec. 1 Canter. do.
10 Canteria fanams		1 ditto pagoda	8 ditto		weigh 1 Span. dollar

The fineness of gold and silver is expressed by dividing it into 10 touch, or matt, which are subdivided into 10 parts, answering to the Chinese division of 100 touch.

Silver Coins.—A new coinage has recently taken place of double rupees, single rupees, halves, quarters, and pieces of 1, 2, 3, and 5 fanams each, from Spanish dollars, which are estimated at 8dwts worse than the British standard.

	lbs.	oz.	dwts.	grs.		lbs.	oz.	dwts.	grs.
1 new rupee will weigh of dollar silver	0	0	7	18¼	Troy, and contains pure silver	0	0	6	22¼¼
1,000 ditto	32	4	19	7¼	ditto	28	10	16	13¼

which is the same quantity of pure silver as is contained in the Arcot rupees that have always been issued from the Madras mint.

1 double rupee will weigh of dollar silver	0	0	15	13½	and contains pure silver	0	0	13	20¾¼
1,000 ditto	64	8	18	14½	ditto	57	9	13	3
1 half ditto	0	0	3	21¾	ditto	0	0	3	11¼¼
1,000 ditto	16	2	9	15¼	ditto	14	5	8	6½
1 quarter ditto	0	0	1	22¼	ditto	0	0	1	17¼¼
1,000 ditto	8	1	4	19½	ditto	7	2	14	3¼

The smaller coins are inscribed with their denomination in English, Persian, Gentoo, and Malabar.

5 fanams piece weighs	71¼ grains Troy.
3 ditto	42¾ ditto.
2 ditto	28½ ditto.
1 ditto	14¼ ditto.

A silver coinage of half and quarter pagodas, of dollar silver fineness, has likewise taken place.

1 silver half pagoda weighs	326½¾	grains Troy, and is equal to	1¼ Arcot rupee.
1 quarter ditto	163¾¼	ditto	½ ditto.

These coins are considered not only as the currency of Madras, but of all the subordinate territories.

The following is the relative value of the Madras or Arcot rupees, with other rupees current in India.

100 Arcot rupees are	Sicca rupees	93	1	8	100 Sicca rupees	are Arcot rupees.	107	6	6
	Bombay	98	2	11	100 Bombay		101	13	7
	Sonauts	97	4	9	100 Sonaut		102	12	5
	Current	108	0	0	100 Current		92	9	6

Formerly the exchange between gold, silver, and copper at this Presidency was subject to great fluctuation. The shroffs, or money-changers, have recently proposed to Government that they would change the larger coins current at the following rates, *viz.*

For every pagoda to give	44 fanams	70 cash.
For every half pagoda	22 ditto	35 ditto.
For every quarter pagoda	11 ditto	17½ ditto.
For every rupee	12 ditto	65 ditto.
For every half rupee	6 ditto	32½ ditto.

and they are supplied at the treasury with fanams and copper coins to carry the same into effect.

COPPER COINS.—Great inconvenience having been experienced from the want of a proper copper coinage in the districts under the Presidency of Madras, a new one has recently been issued of the following numbers, weights, values, and relative proportions to the country weights.

The dubs are to be received and paid in all public payments at the following rates: 24 double dubs, 48 single dubs, 96 half dubs, or 192 quarter dubs to a rupee. They weigh as follow:

Double dubs	11,000	to the Madras candy of 500lbs. avoirdupois.
Single ditto	22,000	ditto ditto.
Half ditto	44,000	ditto ditto.
Quarter ditto	88,000	ditto ditto.
Single dubs	1,100	ditto to the maund of 25 lbs.
Ditto	137½	ditto ..... vis of ..... 3½ ditto.
Ditto	68¾	ditto ..... padalum, or ½ vis.
Ditto	34¼	ditto ..... yabalum, or ¼ vis.
Ditto	17$\frac{1}{8}$	ditto .... pump, or ⅛ vis.

When the above copper coins are issued, they measure with the star pagoda and fanam as follows:

84 double, 168 single, 336 halves, or 672 quarter dubs to one pagoda.

229$\frac{1}{8}$ regulating ditto to one ditto, whose denominations are inscribed on them.

3 single dubs and 1 regulating dub are equal to	1 fanam.	
6 half ditto and 1 ditto	1 ditto.	
12 quarter ditto and 1 ditto	1 ditto.	

There are also issued the following coins, with their denominations inscribed on them in English, Persian, Gentoo, and Malabar.

40 cash piece being 298 grains, or	23¼¼	to the pound avoirdupois.
20 ditto	149 ditto	46¼¼ ditto.
10 ditto	74½ ditto	93¼¼ ditto.
5 ditto	37¼ ditto	187¼¼ ditto.
2½ ditto	18½ ditto	375¼¼ ditto.

WEIGHTS.—Are the pagoda, pollam, seer, vis, maund, and candy, thus divided:

			lbs.	oz.
10 pagodas	make	1 pollam, is avoirdupois	0	1½
8 pollams		1 seer	0	10
5 seer		1 vis	3	2
8 vis		1 maund	25	0
20 maunds		1 candy	500	0

Gold sold by the current pagoda weight, poising each pagoda 2 dwts. 4¼ grs. Troy.

The following is a comparative view of the several denominations of great weights used in various parts of India, with those of the Presidency of Madras.

Country.	Species of Weight.	MADRAS WEIGHT. mds.	vis.	pol.
Bengal	Factory maund	2	7	35½
Ditto	Bazar maund	3	2	11½
Bombay	candy of 20 maunds	22	3	8
China	pecul of 100 catties	5	2	20
Mocha	bahar of 15 frazils	17	6	16
Surat	candy of 20 maunds	29	6	37½

Country.	Species of Weight.	MADRAS WEIGHT. mds.	vis.	pol.
Junkceylon	bahar of 8 caplus	19	3	12½
Bencoolen	bahar	22	3	8
Calicut	maund of 100 pools	1	1	24
Cochin	candy of 20 maunds	21	5	36½
Malacca	bahar of 3 peculs	16	1	24
Tellicherry	candy of 20 maunds	24	0	0

GRAIN AND DRY MEASURE.—Are the olluck, measure, marcal, parah, and garce, thus divided:

1 olluck	make	is equal to cubic inches 11,719 dec.
8 ollucks		1 measure, or puddy 93,752
8 measures		1 marcal 750
5 marcals		1 parah of chunam 3,750
400 marcals		1 garce 300,000

The marcal and lesser measures were ordered, when made of wood, to be round, and rimmed with iron or brass, and the marcal to be 9,$\frac{7}{8}$ inches deep, and 10,$\frac{1}{8}$ inches diameter inside, and to hold 27 lbs. 2 ounces, and 2 drams avoirdupois, of fresh well water: hence 43 marcals are equal to 15 English bushels. The parah to measure 2 feet square, and 6½ feet deep.

When grain is sold by weight, 9,256½ lbs. equal to 18 candies; 12½ maunds are a garce, which is nearly 17½ English quarters.

LIQUID MEASURE.—The puddy, by which milk, ghee, oil, and some other liquids are sold, is equal to the puddy in grain measure, containing 8 ollucks; but for wine, spirits, &c. the English measure is used.

1 olluck	make	is English measure, gall. 0 0 0 1½
2½ ollucks		ditto 0 0 1 0
5 ollucks		ditto 0 1 0 0
8 ollucks		1 measure, or puddy 0 1 1 4½
2½ measures		or 20 ollucks 1 1 1 4½
8 measures		1 marcal 3 0 1 0
20 maunds		1 candy 64 0 0 0

LAND MEASURE.—Land is generally measured with a Gunter's chain of 100 links, or with a rod of 10 feet, and reduced to cawnies, grounds, and square feet, agreeably to the following table.

60 feet long, and 40 feet broad, make 1 ground or mauney, equal to 2,400 square feet.
24 grounds or maunies make 1 cawney 57,600 ditto.

The Indian cawney is in proportion to the English acre, as 1 is to 1,3223, or as 121 is to 160.

To reduce Indian cawnies to English acres, multiply the given number of cawnies by 160, and divide by 121; the quotient will be the number of acres, and the remainder the fractional part of an acre. Or multiply the cawnies by 1,3223, and the product, cutting off 4 places to the right hand, will be the same, and the figures so cut off, are the decimal parts of an acre.

LONG MEASURE.—The covid in cloth measure is 18 inches; but the English yard is generally used.

COMMERCE OF MADRAS AND ITS DEPENDENCIES.

The Coast of Coromandel being without a secure port for shipping, and the articles produced being few in number, the commerce of Madras and its dependencies is of a more limited nature than that of the other Presidencies. All sorts of Asiatic and European commodities are, however, to be procured.

A reporter of external commerce is appointed at the Presidency, and a regular statement is annually transmitted to Europe of the merchandise and treasure imported into, and exported from Madras and its dependencies, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted. The commerce is arranged under the following heads:

I. To and from London (exclusive of the East India Company's trade) comprehending the investments of the commanders and officers of the Company's ships, the goods shipped by individuals on the tonnage allowed by the Act of 33d Geo. III. chap 52, and the cargoes of such country ships as have been permitted to proceed from Madras to London, and return with European goods.

II. To and from other parts of Europe, under the denomination of foreign Europe, comprising Denmark, France, Hamburgh, Leghorn, Lisbon, Madeira, Cadiz, &c.

III. To and from the United States of America.

IV. To and from British Asia, which comprehended in 1801 the under-mentioned places; and notwithstanding the acquisitions which have since taken place, is continued under the same arrangement, viz.

1 Coast of Malabar.
2 Northern parts of Guzzerat.
3 Surat and adjacent Villages.
4 Bombay.
5 Northern Circars.
6 Northern Division of Carnatic.
7 Fort St. George.
8 Southern Division of Carnatic.
9 Tanjore.
10 Tinnevelly and Ramnad.
11 Coast of Sumatra.
12 Coast of Canara.
13 Cochin.
14 Bengal.
15 Ceylon.

V. To and from Foreign Asia, which comprehended in 1801 the under-mentioned places; and though some of them have since been added to the British possessions, the same arrangement is continued, viz.

1 Arabian Gulf.
2 Persian Gulf.
3 Cutch and Scindy.
4 Goa and the Coast of Concan.
5 Mahratta Dominions.
6 Travancore.
7 Tranquebar.
8 Pegu.
9 Pulo Pinang and the Eastward.
10 Malacca.
11 Batavia.
12 Manilla.
13 China.
14 Various places.

Under the head of various places are comprehended the Maldive and Laccadive Islands, Mosambique, and East Coast of Africa, New South Wales, Cape of Good Hope, St. Helena, &c.

The whole of the commerce of this Presidency, commonly called the country trade, is in the hands of individuals, the East India Company never interfering, except for the European market.

The accounts are made up in Bengal Sicca rupees, at the usual rate of exchange, in order to consolidate the commerce of all parts of India under one head hereafter. As the entries of both imports and exports are verified by oath, and the duties moderate, the following statements may be considered accurate.

COMMERCE WITH LONDON.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from London, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to London during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	13,52,879	5,71,171	19,24,050
1803	10,35,493	11,97,498	22,32,991
1804	8,78,574	5,15,853	13,94,427
1805	13,13,927	8,83,620	21,97,547
1806	11,59,152	2,58,187	14,17,339
Total.	57,40,025	34,26,329	91,66,354

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	16,25,644	992	16,26,636
1803	27,40,079	—	27,40,079
1804	10,15,669	—	10,15,669
1805	4,90,633	—	4,90,633
1806	4,66,615	—	4,66,615
Total.	63,38,540	992	63,39,532

Articles of Import in 1805.

Books	Sicca Rupees	13,895
Boots and shoes		31,374
Cutlery and hardware		41,596
Copper		10,559
Coral		64,029
Glass ware and looking glasses		80,463
Hosiery		19,432
Haberdashery		5,190
Hats		43,935
Jewellery		11,333
Ironmongery		30,601
Malt Liquors		45,446
Oilman's stores		95,597
Perfumery		23,424
Provisions		10,381
Plate and plated ware		15,759
Piece goods		13,000
Saddlery		38,239
Wines and spirits		3,92,467
Metals		32,057
Naval stores		27,281
Stationery		20,130
Woollens		32,596
Sundry small articles too numerous to be specified		2,14,943
Merchandise		13,13,927
Treasure		8,83,620
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	21,97,547

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees	1,46,811
Indigo		2,824
Cotton		37,830
Precious stones		1,79,101
Drugs		3,875
Sundries		1,934
Imports re-exported, viz.		
Wines and liquors		40,665
Spice		16,832
Provisions		13,190
Piece-goods		4,225
Galls		7,800
Sundries		35,546
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	4,90,633

Value of merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from London in five years, 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees	57,40,025
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		63,38,540
Exports exceed the imports		5,98,515
Treasure imported during the same period	Sicca Rupees	34,26,329
Ditto exported ditto		992
		34,25,337
Balance in *favour* of Madras and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees	40,23,852

EUROPEAN COMMODITIES SUITABLE TO THE MADRAS MARKETS

Taken from Indents received at various Periods from Madras, which Commodities form the Investments of the Commanders and Officers of the Company's Ships, and the Cargoes of such Country Ships as have been permitted to load from London to Madras.

ALE AND PORTER.

80 hogsheads pale ale.
20 butts ditto.
10 hogsheads porter.
100 dozen bottled beer.

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS.

2 sets of Novelists Magazine, neatly bound.
2 ditto of British Classics, ditto.
2 ditto British Poets, ditto.
2 ditto Bell's British Theatre, ditto.
2 ditto Fielding's Works, ditto.
2 ditto Smollett's ditto, ditto.
2 ditto Johnson's ditto, ditto.
2 ditto Blair's ditto, ditto.
2 ditto Elegant Extracts, ditto.
200 copies Dyche's New Spelling Book.
2 sets Hume and Smollett's England.
2 ditto Shakspeare's Plays, ditto.
2 ditto Thomson's Seasons, ditto.
2 ditto Young's Night Thoughts, ditto.
Newest Law Publications £20
Ditto Medical ditto 20
Ditto Political ditto 10
Publications relative to India Affairs 20
New Army and Navy Lists, &c. 10
New and approved Novels 20

BOOTS AND SHOES.

2 dozen pairs fashionable Hessian boots.
6 pairs ditto ..... jockey ditto.
6 ditto ..... military ditto.
2 dozen pairs Morocco slippers.
6 dozen men's best dress shoes.
3 ditto ..... half dress ditto.
1 ditto ..... strong shooting shoes.
Ladies' and children's shoes ..... £30.

CLOTH AND CASIMERES.

2 pieces best blue Navy cloth.
2 ditto ..... Ladies' ditto.
2 ditto ..... thick scarlet ditto.
1 ditto ..... Ladies' ditto.
1 ditto ..... French grey ditto.
1 ditto ..... dark green table ditto.
6 ditto ..... superfine Welch flannel.
2 pieces superfine black cloth.
20 coat lengths, fashionable colours.
2 pieces 2 sides green and scarlet cloth.
2 ditto ..... blue and scarlet ditto.
1 ditto ..... blue and yellow ditto.
2 dozen boat cloaks and coats.
2 ditto superfine blankets.

CABINET-WARE.

2 dozen solid mahogany tea caddies.
1 ditto gentlemen's writing desks, plain.
1 ditto ditto with brass bands.
6 gentlemen's dressing boxes.
2 solid mahogany tool chests.
4 wainscot ditto.

COTTON GOODS.

50 pieces fine chintz, small neat patterns.
20 ditto for furniture.
20 ditto sanno muslins.
20 ditto jaccanots.
12 counterpanes of 3 sizes.
12 pieces bed ticken, fine stripes.
20 ditto muslinets.
6 ditto India dimities.

CUTLERY.

50 sets handsome knives and forks.
50 ditto black handled ditto.
2 gross razors, different prices.
2 ditto brass stamped knives.
12 cases Savigny's razors.
Penknives, ditto, one and two blades, £20.
6 gross scissars, different kinds.
1 ditto oyster knives.

CORKS.

200 gross best long wine corks.
300 gross best beer corks.

CANVAS.

5 bolts canvas, each No. 1 to 5.
3 ditto, No. 6 to 7.
2 bolts Russia duck.
3 ditto Vitree, very broad.

Canvas is now so well made at Bengal, as almost to supersede the import of English manufacture.

CONFECTIONARY.

12 dozen decanters carraway comfits.
12 ditto brandy fruits, cherries, &c.
72 ditto bottled fruits, gooseberries, &c.
24 ditto cherry brandy in pints.
6 ditto raspberry ditto.
3 dozen pots, each 3lbs. raspberry jam.
3 ditto currant jelly.
1 ditto strawberry jam.
3 ditto pints syrup capillaire.
3 ditto orgeat, &c.

CARRIAGES.

1 fashionable phaeton.
1 ditto chariot, plain yellow.
1 fashionable curricle.
2 ditto gigs.

EARTHEN-WARE.

2 table sets, neat bordered queen's-ware.
2 ditto single lined ditto.
3 dozen black Egyptian tea-pots.
2 ditto cream jugs, &c.
3 sets of fashionable tea service.
2 table services of yellow queen's-ware
50 wash-hand basons and guglets.
20 pairs of curry dishes.

FURNITURE.

2 sets of mahogany dining tables.
1 handsome solid sideboard.
2 ditto wine-keepers.
2 dozen chairs, the bottoms to be rattaned.
2 pair solid card tables.
2 solid Pembroke ditto.
2 bureaus and bookcases.
2 sofas, 6 feet long.

FEATHERS.

An assortment of military-hackles, £50
Fashionable feathers for ladies £10.

GROCERIES.

50 boxes new bloom raisins.
50 canisters, each ¼ cwt. currants.
10 boxes macaroni.
10 ditto Jordan almonds.
10 jars best Turkey figs, each 56lbs.
6 ditto treacle, each ditto.
20 cwt. pearl barley in small kegs.
10 ditto Scotch ditto.

GUNS AND PISTOLS.

2 double barrel guns in cases complete.
4 single ditto in ditto.
20 common fusees.
12 blunderbusses with bayonets.
4 pairs good pistols in cases.
6 ditto brass barrelled ditto in ditto.
6 boxes shooting tackle.
5000 best flints.

GUNPOWDER.

100 canisters, each ½lb. best patent.
100 ditto ..... 1 lb. ditto.
100 canisters, each 2lbs. gunpowder.
20 ditto ..... 5 lb. ditto.

GLASS-WARE.

6 chests of fluted pint tumblers.
6 ditto 3 gill ditto.
3 ditto half-pint ditto.
3 ditto 3 gill goblets.
3 ditto Madeira glasses.
3 ditto claret ditto.
100 India table shades.
50 vase lamps, 10 and 12 inches.
50 globe ditto, all plated.
6 pair table shades, mahogany feet.
3 chests best plain 3 gill tumblers.
3 ditto half-pint ditto.
1 ditto pint ditto.
2 ditto 3 gill goblets.
2 ditto Madeira glasses.
2 ditto claret ditto.
Cups and saucers, green and blue, £50.
Small otto of rose bottles, handsome, £10.
Hand lanthorns, of sorts £10.
2 dozen beer mugs, silver mounted.

GOLD AND SILVER LACE, &c.

20 pairs gold epaulets, full size and bullion.
20 silver ditto, ditto.
10 dozen gold bullion.
10 ditto silver ditto.
100 ounces gold thread.
200 ditto silver ditto.
1 dozen ladies' ornaments.
6 large crimson sashes.

HABERDASHERY, &c.

6 dozen ladies' fashionable silk handkerchiefs.
£20 fashionable ribbons, mostly narrow.
100 yards leno, different patterns.
Pins and needles, each £5.
Artificial flowers, fashionable, £10.
6 pieces white Scotch gauze.
12 ditto narrow velvets for bracelets, &c.
Ready made fashionable millinery, £50.
3 pieces black crapes.
12 ditto hair ribbons.
6 dozen ladies' long white gloves.
6 ditto short ditto.
6 ditto coloured ditto.
1 ditto fashionable ladies' hats.

HATS.

100 best gentlemen's fashionable hats.
20 ditto opera hats.
12 fashionable ladies' hats with feathers, &c.
24 children's hats, assorted sizes and colours.
3 dozen best cockades.
3 ditto men's common hats.

HOSIERY.

24 dozen men's large size cotton hose.
12 ditto ladies' cotton hose, fine.
40 ditto men's cotton half hose.
2 ditto under gauze stockings.
6 dozen ladies' fashionable silk hose
6 ditto gentlemen's ditto.
3 ditto black ditto.
6 black silk breeches pieces.

IRON, HARDWARE, AND IRONMONGERY.

20 tons iron, Swedish, 14 bars to a candy.
20 ditto English iron in flat bars.
4 ditto Swedish steel in tubs.
1 ditto iron hoops.
5 cwt. butt rivets.
Padlocks, door-locks, and thumb-locks, £30.
HL and H hinges and other hinges, £20.
2 tons nails, 6d. to 20d.
4 good iron chests.
2 sets of large scales and weights.
6 pairs large steelyards.
2 sets coopers' tools.
Files and rasps of sorts, £25.
Iron and brass bolts, £10.

LEAD, LEAD SHOT, &c.

5 tons of pig lead, large slabs.
2 ditto sheet lead.
2 ditto red lead, in casks of two cwt.
1 ditto white lead ditto.
2 tons patent shot, viz.

No.	2	3	4	5	7	8	9
Cwt.	5	5	5	6	6	7	6

5 Cwt. lead pipe, one inch in diameter.

MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS.

2 good piano-fortes, very strong.
Spare piano-forte strings, £5.
6 Potter's patent German flutes.
2 good organs with spare barrels.
1 dozen Instructions for German Flute.
New music, £20.

OILMAN'S STORES.

6 quarter cases red pickled cabbage.
3 ditto cauliflowers.
4 ditto piccalilli
6 half chests white wine vinegar.
100 hams, not to exceed 12lbs. each.
3 half chests essence anchovies.
1 ditto Harvey's fish sauce.
1 ditto French olives.
1 ditto salad oil.
72 pine-apple cheeses, 12 in a box.
72 Berkeley ditto, 6 ditto.
40 kegs tongues, 6 in a keg.
10 ditto salted salmon.
10 kits pickled salmon.
6 dozen half pound bottles Durham mustard.
20 jars red herrings.
6 ditto pickled red cabbage.
100 dried reindeer tongues.

PAINTER'S COLOURS.

50 gallons linseed oil, in jars of 10 gallons.
10 ditto spirits turpentine.
10 cwt. yellow ochre.
10 ditto prepared white lead.
10 ditto red lead.
2 cwt. prepared green paint, in small kegs.
20 gallons black varnish.
28 lbs. best King's yellow.
28 ditto verdigrease.
6 dozen paint brushes, assorted.

PERFUMERY.

100 lbs. best violet powder.
6 dozen Jamaica pomatum.
6 ditto lavender water.
2 ditto arquebusade.
3 ditto Ruspini's dentifrice.
2 ditto ditto tincture.
2 ditto ditto styptic.
500 lbs. Windsor soap.
50 sets tooth brushes, 3 in a set.
12 ditto ladies' tortoiseshell combs.
2 dozen best ivory combs.
6 ditto gentlemen's dressing combs.
3 ditto hair brushes.
3 ditto best tooth powder.

PLATE AND JEWELLERY.

3 handsome silver tea pots and stands.
3 ditto coffee urns or pots.
3 ditto sugar basons and cream jugs.
1 dozen silver mustard pots, spare glasses.
6 ditto fashionable table spoons.
6 ditto ditto dessert ditto.
12 ditto ditto tea ditto.
1 ditto soup ladles.
1 ditto sauce ladles.
2 ditto wine labels assorted.
2 fashionable cruet stands, spare glasses.
12 ditto snuff boxes.
3 pair of silver bracket candlesticks.
2 ditto waiters, small size.
2 plated cruet frames, large, each 8 bottles.
6 smaller ditto, 6 bottles.
Fashionable jewellery, such as ear-rings, necklaces, rings, broaches, &c. £100.
Mourning jewellery ditto, £50.
6 ladies' watch chains.
2 dozen seals of sorts.
1 ditto watch keys.
1 ditto plain gold sleeve buttons.
2 ditto silver pencil cases.

SADDLERY.

12 cavalry saddles complete.
6 hunting ditto.
3 pair neat buggy harness plated.
2 fashionable ladies' saddles.
20 pairs military spurs and leathers.
1 phaeton harness, plated mounting.
12 suits horse body-cloths.
3 dozen jockey whips.
2 ditto gig ditto.
2 ditto sets headstalls and reins.
2 ditto girths and surcingles.
Curry combs, brushes, sponges £10.

SHIP CHANDLERY.

20 dozen sewing twine.
3 ditto 3 thread inglines.
12 ditto marline and houseline.
3 dozen lead lines of different sizes.
2 ditto half hour glasses.
12 pieces bunting of colours.

STATIONERY.

5000 large clarified quills.
5000 ditto pens
10 reams medium paper.
20 ditto demy ditto.
50 ditto laid foolscap, cut edges.
25 ditto wove ditto.
30 ditto thick 4to. post, plain and gilt.
20 ditto thin ditto
40 ditto assorted 8vo. post, or note paper.
3 gross best Mogul cards.
2 dozen orderly books, 4 quires demy.
12 ditto 8vo. memorandum books.
6 ditto black lead pencils.
12 lbs. sealing wax.
100 boxes mixed wafers, well glazed.
500 London Spelling Books.
6 dozen slates, with slate pencils.
Pocket books of various sorts, £15.
Drawing paper, assorted, £10.
New Caricatures, £10.

TIN-WARE, &c.

2 dozen iron saucepans, of sizes.
2 ditto tin ditto of ditto.
2 tin shower baths, complete.
1 dozen tea kettles, 2, 3, and 4 quarts.
1 ditto copper ditto.
3 ditto iron tinned spoons.
2 sets block tin dish covers.
1 dozen japanned tea pots.
1 ditto coffee biggins.
1 ditto chocolate pots.
6 boxes tin plates.
1 dozen pewter measures, of sizes.

WINES, SPIRITS, &c.

10 chests claret.
20 half ditto ditto.
5 ditto hock.
20 ditto cider and perry.
12 half chests port wine.
6 ditto rum shrub, in pints.
100 gallons best Cognac brandy.
50 cases Hollands Geneva.

WATCHES.

3 gentlemen's gold watches, and spare glasses.
3 ditto hunting ditto.
2 ladies' fashionable gold watches.
6 pair plain metal watches.
6 ditto silver ditto
6 bracket clocks.

SUNDRIES.

Fine French cambrics, £100
20 New garden seeds, £20
An assortment of furniture prints, in handsome frames, £100
Morocco skins, red and blue, £50
Snuff, a small quantity, £10
Tobacco, ditto, £50
Toys, for children, assorted, £50

The commanders and officers of the Company's ships usually employ one of the native Dubashes, or agents, who has the management of the investments, and is considered responsible for the goods sold, and for which a compensation is made; but they have no fixed rule of charging commission on sales and purchases, leaving it to the discretion of their employers what allowance to make them.

Investments for Europe are generally sold to the shopkeepers by private contract, at so much per cent. advance on the prime cost of goods; the packages, convoy duty, shipping expences, &c. are only paid for at prime cost. The usual mode of payment for goods is, bills at three, six, and nine months, or four, eight, and twelve months, from the period of delivery, as the markets are favourable, and purchasers agree. The common exchange is 8s. per pagoda.

COMMERCE WITH DENMARK.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from Denmark, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to Denmark during the same period.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	68,968	——	68,968
1803	26,222	——	26,222
1804	1,67,564	97,500	2,65,064
1805	——	——	——
1806	——	——	——
Total.	2,62,754	97,500	3,60,254

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	——	——	——
1803	——	——	——
1804	64,185	——	64,185
1805	——	——	——
1806	——	——	——
Total.	64,185	——	64,185

Total of imports into Madras and its dependencies from Denmark	Sicca Rupees	2,62,754
Amount of goods exported from ditto to ditto		64,185
Imports exceed the exports		1,98,569
Amount of treasure imported during the same period		97,500
Balance *against* Madras and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees	1,01,069

COMMERCE WITH FRANCE.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from France in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to France during the same period.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	27,050	14,495	41,545
1803	——	1,72,601	1,72,601
1804	——	——	——
1805	——	——	——
1806	——	——	——
Total.	27,050	1,87,096	2,14,146

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	11,320	——	11,320
1803	——	——	——
1804	——	——	——
1805	——	——	——
1806	——	——	——
Total.	11,320	——	11,320

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from France	Sicca Rupees	27,050
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		11,320
Imports exceed the exports		15,730
Treasure imported into Madras during the same period		1,87,096
Balance *in favour* of Madras and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees	1,71,366

COMMERCE WITH HAMBURGH.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from Hamburgh in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies during the same period.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	1,38,031	——	1,38,031
1803	——	——	——
1804	14,942	——	14,942
1805	——	——	——
1806	——	——	——
Total.	1,52,973	——	1,52,973

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	3,27,713	——	3,27,713
1803	——	——	——
1804	——	——	——
1805	——	——	——
1806	——	——	——
Total.	3,27,713	——	3,27,713

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from Hamburgh .....Sicca Rupees 1,52,973
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto 3,27,713

Balance *in favour* of Madras and its dependencies .....Sicca Rupees 1,74,740

COMMERCE WITH LEGHORN.

During the period of five years, 1802 to 1806 inclusive, there was only one importation from Leghorn, which was in 1803, and amounted to Sicca Rupees 31,193.

COMMERCE WITH LISBON.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from Lisbon in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies during the same period.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	699	3,12,315	3,13,014
1803	30,449	11,01,915	11,32,364
1804	8,547	10,10,848	10,19,395
1805	——	1,30,000	1,30,000
1806	6,624	4,22,504	4,29,128
Total.	46,319	29,77,582	30,23,901

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	10	——	10
1803	——	——	——
1804	——	——	——
1805	——	——	——
1806	——	——	——
Total.	10	——	10

Amount of imports into Madras from Lisbon ..... Sicca Rupees 46,319
Ditto of exports from ditto to ditto 10

Imports exceed the exports 46,309
Amount of treasure imported during the same period 29,77,582

Balance *in favour* of Madras and its dependencies .....Sicca Rupees 29,31,273

COMMERCE WITH MADEIRA.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from Madeira in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to Madeira during the same period.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS. EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.		Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	2,90,020	——	2,90,020	1802	——	——	——
1803	2,38,771	——	2,38,771	1803	——	——	——
1804	4,39,367	——	4,39,367	1804	——	——	——
1805	2,90,427	65,000	3,55,427	1805	——	——	——
1806	2,48,879	——	2,48,879	1806	——	——	——
Total.	15,14,064	65,000	15,79,064	Total.	——	——	——

Against Madras and its dependencies in five years, 1802 to 1806.....Sicca Rupees 14,40,064

COMMERCE WITH CADIZ.

In 1803 there was imported from Cadiz, Sicca Rupees 192 in merchandise, and in treasure 4,20,332 rupees, forming a total of Sicca Rupees 4,20,524, leaving a balance in favour of Madras and its dependencies..... Sicca Rupees 4,20,140

COMMERCE WITH FOREIGN EUROPE.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from the various parts of Foreign Europe already enumerated, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to the various parts of Foreign Europe during the same period.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS. EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.		Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	5,54,852	3,26,810	8,81,662	1802	3,39,043	——	3,39,043
1803	2,95,634	16,94,848	19,90,482	1803	——	——	——
1804	6,38,129	11,08,348	17,46,477	1804	64,185	——	64,185
1805	2,90,427	1,95,000	4,85,427	1805	——	——	——
1806	2,55,503	4,22,504	6,78,007	1806	——	——	——
Total.	20,34,545	37,47,510	57,82,055	Total.	4,03,228	——	4,03,228

The value of merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from Foreign Europe, in five years, 1802 to 1806 ..... Sicca Rupees	20,34,545
Value of ditto exported from ditto to ditto	4,03,228
Imports exceed the exports	16,31,317
Treasure imported into Madras during the above period	37,47,510
Balance *in favour* of Madras and its dependencies..... Sicca Rupees	21,16,193

COMMERCE WITH THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from the United States of America in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to the United States of America during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	61,322	3,23,375	3,84,697
1803	29,151	9,37,407	9,66,558
1804	2,10,290	5,54,304	7,64,594
1805	3,98,513	20,31,776	24,30,289
1806	2,09,786	2,65,269	4,75,055
Total.	9,09,062	41,12,131	50,21,193

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	2,50,011	——	2,50,011
1803	2,50,566	——	2,50,566
1804	2,88,298	——	2,88,298
1805	13,24,290	——	13,24,290
1806	9,31,077	21,668	9,52,745
Total.	30,44,242	21,668	30,65,910

Articles of Import in 1805.

Arrack and Rum	Sicca Rupees	15,077
Brandy and Cherry Brandy		2,32,836
Claret and Port wine		18,936
Cider		332
Geneva		12,237
Metals		35,667
Madeira		49,968
Sundries		33,460
Merchandise		3,98,513
Treasure		20,31,776
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	24,30,289

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees	12,44,994
Sundries		5,485
Imports re-exported, viz.		
Pepper		16,836
Tea		7,310
Alum		15,755
Drugs		2,912
Coffee		3,364
Oils		3,900
Rice		6,598
Sundries		17,136
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	13,24,290

Value of merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from the United States of America in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive ..... Sicca Rupees 9,09,062
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto 30,44,242

Exports exceed the imports 21,35,180
Amount of treasure imported during the same period 41,12,131
Ditto exported 21,668

40,90,463

Balance in favour of Madras and its dependencies ..... Sicca Rupees 62,25,643

Piece-goods are the principal article of export to America, and are generally of the following kinds: Pullicat handkerchiefs, yard square, light straw colour, different patterns; Ventapollam handkerchiefs, white grounds, yard square, of various colours; seven and eight call blue cloth; fourteen and sixteen Punjum cloth; long cloths, Isarees, salempores, palempores, chintz, book muslins, muslin handkerchiefs, and ginghams of various kinds.

COMMERCE WITH THE COAST OF MALABAR.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from the Coast of Malabar, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to the Coast of Malabar during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	4,75,791	—	4,75,791
1803	1,52,924	59,243	2,12,167
1804	3,95,744	2,08,066	6,03,810
1805	3,95,588	1,61,474	5,57,062
1806	5,28,803	2,63,905	7,92,708
Total.	19,48,850	6,92,688	26,41,538

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	3,33,684	—	3,33,684
1803	2,75,669	1,83,969	4,59,638
1804	5,21,705	38,726	5,60,431
1805	4,06,046	27,954	4,34,000
1806	5,12,375	84,432	5,96,807
Total.	20,49,479	3,35,081	23,84,560

Articles of Import in 1805.

Betle-nut	Sicca Rupees 1,15,616
Drugs	12,176
Fruits	33,896
Oils	4,865
Spices	16,852
Cotton	1,162
Piece-goods	95,905
Provisions	7,058
Sugar	2,285
Liquors	9,550
Grain	12,787
Naval stores	6,721
Tobacco	24,154
Timber	5,147
Sundries	47,614
Treasure	1,61,474
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 5,57,062

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees 1,05,829
Sugar	948
Bengal Rum	1,03,338
Cotton	4,819
Betle-nut	23,882
Drugs	1,123
Chillies	1,889
Sandal wood	2,044
Pepper	3,779
Tobacco	2,404
Salt	1,090
Cardamums	37,721
Sundries	30,622
Imports re-exported, viz.	
Liquors	57,051
Spices	343
Woollens	293
Sundries	28,872
Treasure	27,954
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 4,34,000

Value of merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from the Coast of Malabar, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees	19,48,850
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		20,49,479
Exports exceed the imports		1,00,629
Treasure imported from the Coast of Malabar during the same period	6,92,688	
Ditto exported from ditto	3,35,081	
		3,57,607
Balance *in favour* of Madras and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees	4,58,236

COMMERCE WITH THE COAST OF GUZZERAT.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from the Coast of Guzzerat in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to the Coast of Guzzerat during the same period.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	——	——	——
1803	——	——	——
1804	53,065	——	53,065
1805	57,363	——	57,363
1806	1,06,760	——	1,06,760
Total.	2,17,188	——	2,17,188

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	999	——	999
1803	——	——	——
1804	1,77,683	——	1,77,683
1805	92,707	——	92,707
1806	26,861	——	26,861
Total.	2,98,250	——	2,98,250

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from Guzzerat	Sicca Rupees	2,17,188
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		2,98,250
Balance *in favour* of Madras and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees	81,062

COMMERCE WITH SURAT AND THE ADJACENT VILLAGES.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from Surat and the adjacent villages, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to Surat and the adjacent Villages during the same period.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	28,826	——	28,826
1803	23,110	——	23,110
1804	27,930	4,047	31,977
1805	24,952	9,780	34,732
1806	20,411	——	20,411
Total.	1,25,229	13,827	1,39,056

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	16,669	——	16,669
1803	4,886	——	4,886
1804	9,194	——	9,194
1805	27,858	766	28,624
1806	3,254	——	3,254
Total.	61,861	766	62,627

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from Surat, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees		1,25,229
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto			61,861
Imports exceed the exports			63,368
Treasure imported from Surat		13,827	
Ditto exported to ditto		766	
			13,061
Balance *against* Madras and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees		50,307

COMMERCE WITH BOMBAY.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from Bombay in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to Bombay during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	3,80,337	7,424	3,87,761
1803	2,17,579	1,46,336	3,60,915
1804	2,46,644	6,83,493	9,30,137
1805	4,78,756	5,46,553	10,25,309
1806	3,30,313	5,19,814	8,50,127
Total.	16,53,629	19,00,620	35,54,249

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	9,10,147	80,983	9,91,130
1803	6,59,238	41,961	7,01,199
1804	31,56,011	6,826	31,62,837
1805	17,28,352	13,544	17,41,896
1806	17,65,552	27,764	17,93,316
Total.	82,19,300	1,71,078	83,90,378

Articles of Import in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees	74,749
Cotton		1,51,806
Sugar and sugar candy		11,117
Metals		23,821
China ware		2,567
Drugs		16,555
Glass		9,679
Grain		26,494
Oils		3,289
Spices		5,198
Salt		17,487
Books and stationery		13,275
Fruits		7,279
Woollens		18,542
Tea		13,250
Hardware		4,010
Naval stores		6,38
Liquors		26,037
Wearing apparel		2,500
Horses		13,350
Sundries		37,113
Treasure		5,46,553
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	10,25,309

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees	88,570
Beetle-nut		76,667
Tobacco		3,027
Chillies		30,159
Sugar		2,617
Sandal wood		34,177
Pepper		3,85,681
Fruits		1,86,869
Grain		6,37,833
Drugs		16,410
Provisions		48,010
Naval stores		31,396
Spices		41,914
Oils		11,360
Sundries		12,538
Imports re-exported, viz.		
Benjamin		32,712
Liquors		7,690
Piece-goods		14,660
Raw silk		8,262
Spices		26,950
Woollens		78
Sundries		30,772
Treasure		13,544
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	17,41,896

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from Bombay in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees	16,53,629
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		82,19,300
Exports exceed the imports		65,65,671
Treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from Bombay	19,00,620	
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto	1,71,078	
		17,29,542
Balance *in favour* of Madras and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees	82,95,213

COMMERCE WITH THE NORTHERN CIRCARS.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from the Northern Circars in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to the Northern Circars during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	22,65,133	9,590	22,74,659
1803	29,73,782	8,028	29,81,810
1804	18,87,150	6,042	18,94,092
1805	24,95,214	65,350	25,60,564
1806	14,90,339	10,412	15,02,771
Total.	111,11,638	1,02,238	112,13,896

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	7,07,432	13,74,057	20,81,489
1803	5,59,948	2,71,487	8,31,435
1804	5,38,926	62,278	6,01,204
1805	4,79,440	1,11,704	5,91,144
1806	4,70,798	21,281	4,92,079
Total.	27,56,544	18,40,787	45,97,331

Articles of Import in 1805.

	Sicca Rupees
Grain	61,698
Fruits	3,552
Piece-goods	19,180
Dyes and drugs	13,375
Woollens	3,165
Tobacco	2,743
Timber	5,975
Naval stores	7,260
Sundries	22,727
Imports re-exported, viz.	
Liquors	1,14,671
Metals	93,122
Timber	14,372
Guns	7,028
Tea	4,554
Oils	9,500
Provisions	5,591
Stationery	2,117
Raw silk	6,713
Pepper	19,998
Naval stores	8,379
Hats	2,738
Sugar	4,920
Tin-ware	2,677
China-ware	2,035
Cutlery	1,053
Glass	1,577
Spices	2,303
Turmeric	2,677
Drugs	2,808
Sundries	40,142
Treasure	1,11,704
Imports in 1805	5,91,144

Articles of Export in 1805.

	Sicca Rupees
Grain	17,64,040
Piece-goods	3,59,146
Drugs	31,627
Betle-nut	9,379
Fruits	12,119
Timber	13,334
Woollens	5,192
Ghee	10,354
Cocoa-nuts	10,198
Snuff and tobacco	9,785
Tobacco	1,897
Sundries	65,943
Treasure	65,350
Exports in 1805	25,90,564

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from the Northern Circars	Sicca Rupees	111,11,638
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		27,56,544
Imports exceed the exports		83,55,094
Treasure imported into Madras from the Northern Circars		1,02,258
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		18,40,787
		17,38,529
Balance *against* Madras and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees	100,93,623

COMMERCE WITH THE NORTHERN DIVISION OF THE CARNATIC.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from the Northern Division of the Carnatic in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to the Northern Division of the Carnatic during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	6,24,853	—	6,24,853
1803	5,29,842	—	5,29,842
1804	4,91,696	8,590	5,00,286
1805	5,69,340	41,279	6,10,619
1806	4,30,658	—	4,30,658
Total.	26,46,389	49,869	26,96,258

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	1,24,783	—	1,24,783
1803	14,216	—	14,216
1804	30,792	2,324	33,116
1805	23,412	1,859	25,271
1806	15,484	—	15,484
Total.	2,08,687	4,183	2,12,870

Articles of Import in 1805.

Grain	Sicca Rupees	2,65,430
Piece-goods		1,22,460
Tobacco		77,729
Timber		17,371
Drugs		9,780
Cotton		7,495
Saltpetre		10,387
Bangle stone		4,444
Turmeric		4,479
Woollens		3,018
Sundries		46,747
Treasure		41,279
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	6,10,619

Articles of Export in 1805.

Grain	Sicca Rupees	9,742
Tobacco		3,442
Sundries		7,586
Imports re-exported		2,642
Treasure		1,859
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	25,271

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from the Northern Division of the Carnatic, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees	26,46,389
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		2,08,687
Imports exceed the exports		24,37,302
Treasure imported into Madras during the same period		49,869
Ditto exported from ditto		4,183
		45,686
Balance *against* Madras and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees	23,92,016

COMMERCE WITH MADRAS.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from Madras in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to Madras during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	2,60,326	13,74,037	16,34,363
1803	4,26,355	2,77,839	7,04,194
1804	4,04,549	3,11,778	7,16,337
1805	5,33,561	13,29,417	18,62,978
1806	5,63,632	4,55,211	10,18,843
Total.	21,88,423	37,48,292	59,36,715

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	29,34,395	——	29,34,395
1803	32,52,475	——	32,52,475
1804	23,48,435	66,449	24,14,884
1805	29,55,137	13,976	29,69,113
1806	29,74,005	5,463	29,79,468
Total.	144,64,447	85,888	145,50,335

Articles of Import in 1805.

Metals	Sicca Rupees 1,91,419
Grain	41,247
Liquors	57,367
Drugs	33,733
Spices	23,831
Timber	28,550
Sugar	9,505
Beetle-nut	9,016
Naval stores	14 528
Raw silk	3,265
Perfumery	6,320
Opium	5,656
Gums	1,282
Fruits	11,535
Glass	4,066
Piece-goods	12,856
Sundries	79,385
Treasure	13,29,417
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 18,62,978

Articles of Export in 1805.

Grain	Sicca Rupees 14,06,035
Piece-goods	11,28,326
Tobacco	31,321
Pepper	27,795
Fruits	25,714
Cotton	30,965
Sugar and jaggery	27,541
Drugs	13,003
Provisions	15,651
Saltpetre	9,749
Chillies	15,090
Timber	15,408
Turmeric	5,833
Sundries	49,421
Imports re-exported, viz.	
Liquors	61,423
Opium	21,127
Spices	44,841
Timber	5,239
Gums	5,911
Grain	4,141
Sticklac	2,182
Metals	326
Sundries	5,095
Treasure	13,976
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 29,69,113

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from Madras	Sicca Rupees 21,88,423
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto	144,64,447
Exports exceed the imports	122,76,024
Treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies during the same period	37,48,292
Ditto exported from ditto	85,888
	36,62,404
Balance *in favour* of Madras and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees 159,38,428

COMMERCE WITH TANJORE.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from Tanjore in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to Tanjore during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	6,13,625	17,644	6,31,269
1803	4,92,031	3,993	4,96,024
1804	3,47,993	78,929	4,26,922
1805	7,61,396	34,205	7,95,601
1806	3,75,043	4,307	3,79,350
Total.	25,90,088	1,39,078	27,29,166

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	2,38,566	——	2,38,566
1803	2,82,502	——	2,82,502
1804	2,26,844	1,856	2,28,700
1805	1,78,451	——	1,78,451
1806	1,70,428	——	1,70,428
Total.	10,96,791	1,856	10,98,647

Articles of Import in 1805.

Grain	Sicca Rupees 5,30,331
Liquors	58,137
Piece-goods	5,418
Fruits	31,492
Spices	16,602
Metals	12,842
Cotton	10,948
Timber	9,263
Chanks	2,834
Drugs	16,585
Naval stores	3,386
Salt	2,583
Jaggery toddy	3,461
Beetle-nut	5,869
Sandal-wood	1,694
Sundries	49,951
Treasure	34,205
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 7,95,601

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees 1,03,019
Indigo	29,834
Beetle-nut	4,198
Grain	4,285
Sundries	11,202
Imports re-exported	25,923
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 1,78,451

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from Tanjore	Sicca Rupees	25,90,088
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		10,96,791
Imports exceed the exports		14,93,297
Treasure imported during the same period	1,39,078	
Ditto exported	1,856	
		1,37,222
Balance *against* Madras and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees	13,56,075

COMMERCE WITH THE SOUTHERN DIVISION OF THE CARNATIC.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from the Southern Division of the Carnatic in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to the Southern Division of the Carnatic during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	4,27,843	——	4,27,843
1803	9,07,082	97,528	10,04,610
1804	5,99,612	51,896	6,51,508
1805	3,57,931	1,50,582	5,08,513
1806	3,56,985	32,373	3,89,358
Total.	26,49,453	29,81,832	3,32,379

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	3,07,664	——	3,07,664
1803	3,51,236	46,430	3,97,666
1804	1,81,889	26,152	2,08,041
1805	3,77,140	——	3,77,140
1806	95,083	3,250	98,333
Total.	13,13,012	75,832	13,88,844

Articles of Import in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees	2,63,192
Indigo		45,711
Timber		5,334
Liquors		13,450
Beetle-nut		7,076
Grain		6,010
Pepper		4,128
Cotton		1,690
Sundries		11,340
Treasure		1,50,582
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	5,08,513

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece Goods	Sicca Rupees	1,48,992
Grain		1,83,173
Cotton		5,826
Beetle-nut		3,091
Sundries		4,283
Imports re-exported		31,775
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	3,77,140

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from the Southern Division of the Carnatic in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees	26,49,453
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		13,13,012
Imports exceed the exports		13,36,441
Amount of treasure imported during the same period	3,32,379	
Ditto exported	75,832	
		2,56,547
Balance *against* Madras and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees	10,79,894

COMMERCE WITH CANARA.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from Canara in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	2,20,752	——	2,20,752
1803	19,21,680	1,896	19,23,576
1804	1,25,265	5,952	1,31,217
1805	80,721	30,095	1,10,816
1806	3,81,413	1,748	3,83,161
Total.	27,38,831	39,691	27,78,522

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	1,03,771	——	1,03,771
1803	18,52,697	7,397	18,60,094
1804	2,42,641	2,986	2,45,627
1805	1,52,029	2,432	1,55,361
1806	1,21,361	744	1,22,105
Total.	24,73,399	13,559	24,86,958

Articles of Import in 1805.

Sandal-wood	Sicca Rupees 5,140
Beetle-nut	10,660
Piece-goods	23,734
Grain	9,188
Timber and Plank	3,598
Chilli Pepper	776
Sugar and Jaggery	16,163
Cotton	3,460
Sundries	17,002
Treasure	30,095
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 1,10,816

Articles of Export in 1805.

Beetle-nut	Sicca Rupees 3,524
Cotton	3,875
Piece-goods	17,805
Fruits	13,390
Provisions	8,633
Grain	54,376
Pepper	6,233
Drugs	155
Tobacco	23,520
Sundries	15,840
Imports re-exported	5,378
Treasure	2,432
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 1,55,361

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from Canara in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees	27,38,831
Ditto exported from ditto		24,73,399
Imports exceed the exports		2,65,432
Treasure imported into Madras during the same period	39,691	
Ditto exported	13,559	
		26,132
Balance against Madras and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees	2,39,300

COMMERCE WITH BENGAL.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from Bengal in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to Bengal during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	26,93,533	12,26,099	39,19,632
1803	24,39,690	4,41,373	28,81,063
1804	33,57,671	14,530	33,72,201
1805	34,88,425	20,185	35,08,610
1806	28,26,816	826	28,27,642
Total.	148,06,135	17,03,013	165,09,148

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	4,28,906	68,163	4,97,069
1803	5,00,972	15,446	5,16,418
1804	4,76,129	——	4,76,129
1805	5,17,387	25,731	5,43,118
1806	5,71,465	7,239	5,78,704
Total.	24,94,859	1,16,579	26,11,438

Articles of Import in 1805.

Raw silk	Sicca Rupees	3,93,284
Grain		24,34,482
Books		12,431
Wearing apparel		11,984
Carriages		8,626
Coral		6,640
Piece-goods		3,37,546
Spices		35,071
Sugar		22,528
Drugs		91,484
Pepper		4,777
Metals		9,158
Stationery		12,431
Naval stores		9,627
Opium		6,500
Liquors		20,113
Millinery		9,627
Sundries		62,116
Treasure		20,185
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	35,08,610

Articles of Export in 1805.

Salt	Sicca Rupees	1,62,305
Redwood		9,275
Indigo		2,340
Sapan wood		2,148
Sandal wood		5,872
Coir cables		4,418
Chanks		66,869
Cowries		13,654
Drugs		7,638
Spice		7,708
Timber		7,453
Piece-goods		89,400
Sundries		24,346
Imports re-exported, viz.		
Liquors		30,598
Timber		16,250
Spices		11,671
Woollens		11,700
Tea		9,103
Sundries		34,399
Treasure		25,731
Exported in 1805		5,43,118

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from Bengal in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive ..... Sicca Rupees 148,06,135

Ditto exported from ditto to ditto 24,94,859

Imports exceed the exports 123,11,276

Treasure imported into Madras during the same period 17,03,013

Ditto exported from ditto 1,16,579

15,86,434

Balance *against* Madras and its dependencies ..... Sicca Rupees 107,24,842

COMMERCE WITH CEYLON.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from the Island of Ceylon in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total Sicca Rupees.
1802	7,34,011	7,476	7,41,487
1803	7,45,961	2,584	7,49,545
1804	5,97,147	9,772	6,06,919
1805	5,79,209	5,712	5,84,921
1806	6,90,629	17,918	7,08,547
Total.	33,47,957	43,462	33,91,419

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	4,30,028	60,126	4,90,154
1803	7,14,536	1,35,974	8,50,510
1804	9,40,799	48,299	9,89,098
1805	8,66,455	13,000	8,79,455
1806	8,34,177	——	8,34,177
Total.	37,85,995	2,57,399	40,43,394

Articles of Import in 1805.

Coir and coir cables.....Sicca Rupees	3,855
Pepper	4,455
Coffee	14,541
Copper	2,844
Arrack	1,84,749
Betle-nut	1,15,770
Spices	32,657
Gumlac	6,426
Palmyras	6,472
Timber	41,400
Tobacco	13,367
Naval stores	27,866
Sugar	10,695
Elephants	19,500
Drugs	3,037
Sundries	91,555
Treasure	5,712
Imports in 1805.....Sicca Rupees	5,84,291

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods.....Sicca Rupees	2,38,387
Pepper	1,500
Grain	3,36,366
Cotton	2,836
Sundries	57,658
Imports re-exported, viz.	
Liquors	1,31,705
Grain	29,917
Provisions	8,247
Piece-goods	5,316
Glass-ware	4,195
China-ware	4,816
Oilman's stores	3,113
Tea	3,013
Metals	20,004
Sundries	19,383
Treasure	13,000
Exports in 1805.....Sicca Rupees	8,79,455

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from Ceylon in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive.....Sicca Rupees		33,47,957
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		37,85,995
Exports exceed the imports		4,38,038
Treasure imported into Madras from Ceylon during the above period	43,462	
Ditto exported from ditto	2,57,399	
		2,13,937
Balance *in favour* of Madras and its dependencies.....Sicca Rupees		2,24,101

COMMERCE WITH TINNEVELLY AND RAMNAD.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from Tinnevelly and Ramnad in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive: likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to Tinnevelly and Ramnad during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	7,11,252	14,576	7,25,828
1803	5,48,430	——	5,48,430
1804	5,76,764	——	5,76,764
1805	3,65,290	24	3,65,314
1806	3,41,353	——	3,41,353
Total.	25,43,279	14,600	25,57,879

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	1,18,320	——	1,18,320
1803	1,07,987	——	1,07,987
1804	1,86,857	——	1,86,857
1805	1,35,712	——	1,35,712
1806	3,58,731	——	3,58,731
Total.	9,07,607	——	9,07,607

Articles of Import in 1805.

Piece-goods ..... Sicca Rupees	2,17,556
Grain	47,313
Jaggery and toddy	25,725
Sugar	10,482
Drugs	5,032
Cotton	11,618
Fruits	9,243
Beetle-nut	8,367
Metals	4,158
Naval stores	1,998
Pepper	4,454
Tobacco	1,319
Metals	2,693
Coir	625
Chanks	712
Timber	168
Sundries	13,867
Treasure	24
Imports in 1805 ..... Sicca Rupees	3,65,314

Articles of Export in 1805.

Pepper ..... Sicca Rupees	56,732
Piece-goods	12,223
Grain	7,626
Beetle-nut	4,209
Timber	5,602
Oil	3,642
Fruits	4,008
Sundries	11,854
Imports re-exported, viz.	
Sugar	1,311
Liquors	14,577
Sundries	13,538
Exports in 1805 ..... Sicca Rupees	1,35,712

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from Tinnevelly and Ramnad in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive ..... Sicca Rupees	25,43,279
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto	9,07,607
Imports exceed the exports	16,35,672
Treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies during the same period	14,600
Balance *against* Madras and its dependencies ..... Sicca Rupees	16,21,072

COMMERCE WITH COCHIN.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from Cochin in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to Cochin during the same period.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	40,415	——	40,415
1803	7,195	——	7,195
1804	46,671	——	46,671
1805	11,166	——	11,166
1806	11,764	——	11,764
Total.	1,17,211	——	1,17,211

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	5,686	——	5,686
1803	11,886	——	11,886
1804	8,244	——	8,244
1805	11,290	——	11,290
1806	2,726	——	2,726
Total.	39,832	——	39,832

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from Cochin ..... Sicca Rupees 1,17,211
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto 39,832

Balance *against* Madras and its dependencies ..... Sicca Rupees 77,379

COMMERCE WITH BRITISH ASIA.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from British Asia in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to British Asia during the same period.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	95,33,257	27,75,544	123,08,801
1803	113,86,661	10,35,820	124,22,481
1804	91,37,901	13,84,005	105,41,906
1805	102,07,912	23,94,656	126,02,568
1806	84,55,129	13,08,514	97,63,643
Total.	487,40,860	88,98,539	576,39,399

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	66,61,143	15,83,309	82,44,452
1803	85,88,248	7,02,664	92,90,912
1804	90,46,140	2,55,896	93,02,045
1805	79,32,316	2,10,966	81,63,282
1806	79,22,300	1,50,173	80,72,473
Total.	401,70,156	29,03,008	430,73,164

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from various parts of British Asia in five years, 1802 to 1806 inclusive ..... Sicca Rupees 487,40,860
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto 401,70,156

Imports exceed the exports 85,70,704
Treasure imported from various parts of British Asia during the same period 88,98,539
Ditto exported to ditto 29,03,008

59,95,531

Balance *against* Madras and its dependencies ..... Sicca Rupees 25,75,173

COMMERCE WITH THE ARABIAN GULF.

The following is a Statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from the Arabian Gulf in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive, likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to the Gulf of Arabia during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	75,179	25,350	1,00,529
1803	22,621	86,773	1,09,394
1804	43,633	73,743	1,17,376
1805	25,777	53,008	78,785
1806	51,485	1,86,487	2,37,972
Total.	2,18,695	4,25,361	6,44,056

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	3,10,829	—	3,10,829
1803	2,86,722	—	2,86,722
1804	1,58,160	27,384	1,85,544
1805	2,63,643	334	2,63,977
1806	3,78,384	1,215	3,79,599
Total.	13,97,738	28,933	14,26,671

Articles of Import in 1805.

Metals	Sicca Rupees	4,170
Oils		1,903
Provisions		1,163
Fruits		3,350
Horses		6,407
Drugs		5,315
Sundries		3,469
Merchandise		25,777
Treasure		53,008
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	78,785

Articles of Export in 1805.

Grain	Sicca Rupees	1,98,680
Piece-goods		926
Sandal wood		3,461
Cotton		6,653
Pepper		32,831
Sundries		5,698
Cassia		754
Lead		369
Tobacco		917
Iron		1,370
Sugar		2,118
Imports re-exported, viz.		
China-ware		2,113
Sundries		2,453
Merchandise		2,63,643
Treasure		334
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	2,63,977

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from the Arabian Gulf in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees	2,18,695
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		13,97,738
Exports exceed the imports		11,79,043
Treasure imported into Madras during the same period		4,25,361
Ditto exported ditto		28,933
		3,96,428
Balance *in favour* of Madras and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees	15,75,471

COMMERCE WITH THE PERSIAN GULF.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from the Persian Gulf in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to the Persian Gulf during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	91,123	——	91,123
1803	18,386	1,72,968	1,91,354
1804	49,602	——	49,602
1805	31,607	——	31,607
1806	10,338	4,332	14,670
Total.	2,01,056	1,77,300	3,78,356

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	5,86,976	——	5,86,976
1803	3,43,369	——	3,43,369
1804	5,20,291	2,191	5,22,482
1805	36,367	——	36,367
1806	4,37,983	——	4,37,983
Total.	19,27,986	2,191	19,29,277

Articles of Import in 1805.

Horses	Sicca Rupees	18,200
Fruits		1,810
Drugs		9,684
Gums		1,590
Sundries		323
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	31,607

Articles of Export in 1805.

Grain	Sicca Rupees	9,448
Drugs		1,440
Spices		3,940
Pepper		13,214
Turmeric		1,056
Sundries		2,069
Imports re-exported		200
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	35,367

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from the Persian Gulf	Sicca Rupees	2,01,056
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		19,27,086
Exports exceed the imports		17,26,030
Treasure imported into Madras during the above period		1,77,300
Ditto exported from ditto		2,191
		1,75,109
Balance *in favour* of Madras and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees	19,01,139

COMMERCE WITH CUTCH AND SCINDY.

During the five years, 1802 to 1806 inclusive, the amount of the commerce between Madras and its dependencies and the Coasts of Cutch and Scindy was as follows:

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies in 1802	Sicca Rupees	1,15,851
Ditto exported from ditto		2,87,063
Balance *in favour* of Madras and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees	1,71,212

COMMERCE WITH GOA AND THE COAST OF CONCAN.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from Goa and the Coast of Concan in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to Goa and the Coast of Concan during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total Sicca Rupees.
1802	30,519	—	30,519
1803	43,685	49,039	92,724
1804	44,683	2,61,366	3,06,049
1805	38,805	2,49,852	2,88,657
1806	29,710	3,97,536	4,27,246
Total.	1,87,402	9,57,793	11,45,195

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	4,07,915	—	4,07,915
1803	4,28,222	—	4,28,222
1804	4,30,678	5,340	4,36,018
1805	6,58,799	430	6,59,229
1806	7,62,593	—	7,62,593
Total.	27,48,207	5,770	27,53,977

Articles of Import in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees	1,928
Liquors		1,042
Salt		24,459
Stationery		8,698
Sundries		3,578
Merchandise		38,805
Treasure		2,49,852
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	2,88,657

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees	20,304
Grain		3,51,836
Sugar		842
Drugs		904
Cotton		10
Spices		45
Oils		518
Pepper		40,346
Beetle-nut		490
Provisions		766
Fruits		20,517
Sundries		7,070
Merchandise		6,53,848
Imports re-exported		4,951
Treasure		430
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	6,59,229

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from Goa and the Coast of Concan in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees	1,87,402
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		27,48,207
Exports exceed the imports		25,60,805
Treasure imported into Madras during the same period		9,57,793
Ditto exported ditto		5,770
		9,52,023
Balance *in favour* of Madras and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees	35,12,828

COMMERCE WITH THE MAHRATTA DOMINIONS.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from the Mahratta Dominions in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to the Mahratta Dominions during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	76,812	——	76,812
1803	63,460	11,491	74,951
1804	1,05,649	75,175	1,80,824
1805	1,26,767	73,946	2,00,713
1806	1,03,448	1,06,803	2,10,251
Total.	4,76,136	2,67,415	7,43,551

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	1,28,171	——	1,28,171
1803	1,18,436	——	1,18,436
1804	98,146	2,899	1,01,045
1805	2,19,212	1,405	2,20,617
1806	2,38,238	10,663	2,48,901
Total.	8,02,203	14,967	8,17,170

Articles of Import in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees 1,02,495
Cotton	11,974
Woollens	5,543
Fruits	725
Sundries	6,030
Treasure	73,946
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 2,00,713

Articles of Export in 1805.

Grain	Sicca Rupees 1,70,987
Pepper	23,398
Beetle-nut	12,846
Fruits	4,613
Spices	1,993
Sundries	3,046
Imports re-exported, viz.	
Iron	268
China-ware	151
Cutlery	368
Glass-ware	226
Metals	913
Sundries	403
Treasure	1,405
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 2,20,617

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from the Mahratta Dominions in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees	4,76,136
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		8,02,203
Exports exceed the imports		3,26,067
Treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from the Mahratta Dominions during the above period	2,67,415	
Ditto exported from ditto	14,967	
		2,52,448
Balance *in favour* of Madras and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees	5,78,515

COMMERCE WITH TRAVANCORE.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from Travancore in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to Travancore during the same period; together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	——	——	——
1803	1,88,795	——	1,88,795
1804	43,337	——	43,337
1805	1,26,214	——	1,26,214
1806	9,162	——	9,162
Total.	3,67,508	——	3,67,508

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	——	——	——
1803	59,383	——	59,383
1804	9,854	——	9,854
1805	5,958	——	5,958
1806	1,123	——	1,123
Total.	76,318	——	76,318

Articles of Import in 1805.

Betle-nut	Sicca Rupees	53,609
Spices		38,404
Fruits		11,904
Timber		6,110
Drugs		6,054
Pepper		2,203
Grain		2,180
Chanks		1,492
Sundries		4,168
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	1,26,214

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees	4,512
Salt		272
Cotton		181
Sundries		384
Imports re-exported		609
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	5,958

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from Travancore in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive ..... Sicca Rupees 3,67,508
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto 76,318

Balance *against* Madras and its dependencies ..... Sicca Rupees 2,91,190

COMMERCE WITH THE COAST OF SUMATRA.

During the five years, 1802 to 1806 inclusive, the amount of the commerce between Madras and its dependencies and the Coast of Sumatra was as follows:

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies ..... Sicca Rupees 56,467
Treasure exported from ditto 1,18,762

Balance *against* Madras and its dependencies ..... Sicca Rupees 62,295

COMMERCE WITH TRANQUEBAR.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from Tranquebar in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to Tranquebar during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	2,06,242	——	2,06,242
1803	1,00,678	——	1,00,678
1804	3,35,916	6,08,611	9,44,527
1805	2,55,481	4,72,785	7,28,266
1806	2,07,188	2,44,923	4,52,111
Total.	11,05,505	13,26,319	24,31,824

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	77,587	——	77,587
1803	3,91,680	——	3,91,680
1804	9,54,343	——	9,54,343
1805	9,62,606	——	9,62,606
1806	4,24,905	——	4,24,905
Total.	28,11,121	——	28,11,121

Articles of Import in 1805.

Liquors	Sicca Rupees	1,32,840
Naval stores		64,682
Metals		11,072
Grain		6,593
Piece-goods		13,480
Spices		10,529
Dyes		2,561
Mother of Pearl		3,591
Sundries		10,133
Treasure		4,72,785
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	7,28,266

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees	8,61,341
Grain		4,819
Hosiery		1,544
Sundries		6,313
Imports re-exported, viz.		
Opium		34,775
Sugar		13,846
Liquors		10,943
Spices		12,387
Metals		3,711
Saddlery		1,508
Naval stores		2,048
Stationery		812
Cutlery		1,198
Glass-ware		763
Sundries		6,298
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	9,62,606

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from Tranquebar in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees	11,05,505
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		28,11,121
Exports exceed the imports		17,05,616
Treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies during the same period		13,26,319
Balance in favour of Madras and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees	30,31,935

COMMERCE WITH PEGU.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from Pegu in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to Pegu during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	79,851	428	80,279
1803	2,59,965	——	2,59,965
1804	2,25,019	1,684	2,26,703
1805	1,00,773	57,870	1,58,643
1806	1,78,129	——	1,78,129
Total.	8,43,737	59,982	9,03,719

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	95,386	51,309	1,46,695
1803	91,844	65,864	1,57,708
1804	1,11,031	23,127	1,34,158
1805	56,479	17,329	73,808
1806	1,65,508	——	1,65,508
Total.	5,20,242	1,57,629	6,77,877

Articles of Import in 1805.

Timber and plank ..... Sicca Rupees	59,198
Pepper	680
Horses	24,417
Cardamums	1,232
Stick-lac	657
Wax	250
Dammer	598
Cutch	121
Elephants'-teeth	385
Iron	287
Sundries	12,948
Merchandise	1,00,773
Treasure	57,870
Imports in 1805 ..... Sicca Rupees	1,58,643

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods ..... Sicca Rupees	43,948
Imports re-exported	8,235
Sundries	4,296
Treasure	17,329
Exports in 1805 ..... Sicca Rupees	73,808

Value of imports into Madras and its dependencies from Pegu, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive ..... Sicca Rupees		8,43,737
Ditto of exports from ditto		5,20,248
Imports exceed the exports		3,23,489
Amount of treasure imported during the same period	59,982	
Ditto exported	1,57,629	
		97,647
Balance *against* Madras and its dependencies ..... Sicca Rupees		4,21,136

COMMERCE WITH PULO PINANG AND THE EASTWARD.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from Pulo Pinang and Ports to the Eastward in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to Pulo Pinang and the Eastward during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	4,97,713	2,56,552	7,54,265
1803	10,86,649	2,62,644	13,49,293
1804	6,53,949	5,64,561	12,18,510
1805	7,72,635	4,26,299	11,98,934
1806	6,21,816	6,41,461	12,63,277
Total.	36,32,762	21,51,517	57,84,279

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	11,88,058	1,17,212	13,05,270
1803	13,70,783	80,756	14,51,539
1804	8,44,481	32,685	8,77,166
1805	10,38,052	——	10,38,052
1806	10,58,556	——	10,58,556
Total.	54,99,930	2,30,653	57,30,583

Articles of Export in 1805.

Benjamin	Sicca Rupees	1,33,028
Beetle-nut		2,29,387
Pepper		2,83,628
Spices		3,044
Metals		29,672
Agala wood		28,399
Timber		9,657
Mother of pearl shells		5,912
Sundries		49,908
Treasure		4,26,299
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	11,98,934

Articles of Import in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees	9,25,802
Cotton		10,480
Sundries		23,304
Imports re-exported, viz.		
Wine and Liquors		55,758
Metals		10,293
Hosiery		2,046
Sundries		10,279
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	10,38,052

Merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from Pulo Pinang and the Eastward in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees	36,32,762
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		54,99,930
Exports exceed the imports		18,67,168
Treasure imported into Madras during the same period	21,51,517	
Ditto exported from ditto	2,30,653	
		19,20,864
Balance *in favour* of Madras and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees	37,88,032

Since the year 1802, the commerce carried on with Malacca is included under the head of Pulo Pinang and the Eastward. In the year 1802 there was merchandise imported of the value of Sicca Rupees 20,027
Ditto exported during the same period 1,04,707

Exports exceed the imports		84,680
Treasure imported during the same period from Malacca		6,91,150
Balance *in favour* of Madras and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees.	7,75,830

COMMERCE WITH MANILLA.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from Manilla in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to Manilla during the same period.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	50,193	15,79,051	16,29,244
1803	38,270	5,53,153	5,91,423
1804	6,831	4,21,119	4,27,950
1805	12,377	8,91,891	9,04,268
1806	300	1,01,832	1,02,132
Total.	1,07,971	35,47,046	36,55,017

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	6,15,455	——	6,15,455
1803	2,81,589	——	2,81,589
1804	3,10,407	——	3,10,407
1805	——	——	——
1806	——	——	——
Total.	12,07,451	——	12,07,451

Value of merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from Manilla in five years, 1802 to 1806 inclusive ..... Sicca Rupees		1,07,971
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		12,07,451
Exports exceed the imports		10,99,480
Treasure imported from Manilla during the same period		35,47,046
Balance *in favour* of Madras and its dependencies ..... Sicca Rupees		46,46,526

COMMERCE WITH BATAVIA.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from Batavia in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to Batavia during the same period.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	2,00,400	5,954	2,06,354
1803	4,11,035	81,898	4,92,933
1804	19,946	——	19,946
1805	66,845	——	66,845
1806	40,950	——	40,950
Total.	7,39,176	87,852	8,27,028

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	1,06,581	——	1,06,581
1803	92,198	——	92,198
1804	——	——	——
1805	——	——	——
1806	——	39,724	39,724
Total.	1,98,779	39,724	2,38,503

Value of merchandise imported into Madras from Batavia in the years 1802 to 1806..Sicca Rupees		7,39,176
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		1,98,779
Imports exceed the exports		5,40,397
Amount of treasure imported during the same period	87,852	
Ditto exported ditto	39,724	
		48,128
Balance *against* Madras and its dependencies ..... Sicca Rupees		4,92,269

COMMERCE WITH CHINA.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from China in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to China during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	3,24,751	13,11,835	16,36,586
1803	2,82,258	1,391	2,83,649
1804	6,69,925	99,291	7,69,216
1805	5,43,702	3,10,329	8,54,031
1806	5,12,264	3,95,018	9,07,282
Total.	23,32,900	21,17,864	44,50,764

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	2,80,825	19,093	2,99,918
1803	7,10,120	99,378	8,09,498
1804	11,48,833	10,497	11,59,330
1805	7,79,590	——	7,79,590
1806	4,23,248	14,154	4,37,402
Total.	33,42,616	1,43,122	34,85,738

Articles of Import in 1805

	Sicca Rupees
Alum	7,573
Beads	400
Camphire	39,147
Nankeens	1,64,811
Piece-goods	13,410
Liquors	6,968
Pepper	19
Tutenague	1,183
Tea	88,246
Vermilion	487
Kittisols	4,335
China-ware	91,620
Lackered ware	764
Sugar and sugar-candy	45,993
Cassia and buds	2,346
Stationery	17,647
Furniture	25,027
Drugs	3,933
Cochineal	162
Cordage	3,855
Fire-works	900
Provisions	7,164
Sundries	17,718
Merchandise	5,42,702
Treasure	3,10,329
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 8,54,031

Articles of Export in 1805.

	Sicca Rupees
Piece-goods	91,092
Cotton	1,04,364
Pearls	4,22,997
Sandal wood	6,864
Redwood	9,000
Sharks' fins	6,468
Sundries	1,994
Imports re-exported viz.	
Rice	29,400
Coral	63,495
Saltpetre	7,800
Wine and liquors	25,220
Glass-ware	1,147
Broad cloth	3,809
Sundries	5,954
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 7,79,590

Value of imports into Madras from China in five years, 1802 to 1806 inclusive....Sicca Rupees 23,32,900
Ditto of exports from ditto to ditto 33,42,616

Exports exceed the imports 10,09,716
Amount of treasure imported into Madras 21,17,864
Ditto exported from ditto 1,43,122
19,74,742

Balance *in favour* of Madras and its dependencies ..... Sicca Rupees 29,84,458

COMMERCE WITH VARIOUS PLACES.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from various places in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to various places during the same period.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	1,90,337	15,862	2,06,199
1803	2,01,945	5,91,046	7,92,991
1804	30,238	54,314	84,552
1805	36,097	29,256	65,353
1806	77,610	——	77,610
Total.	5,36,227	6,90,478	12,26,705

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	3,14,930	10	3,14,940
1803	4,18,979	——	4,18,979
1804	29,273	17,332	46,605
1805	56,325	——	56,325
1806	3,43,025	——	3,43,025
Total.	11,62,532	17,342	11,79,874

Merchandise imported into Madras from various places in the years 1802 to 1806..Sicca Rupees 5,36,227
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto 11,62,532

Exports exceed the imports 6,26,305
Treasure imported into Madras during the above period 6,90,478
Ditto exported from ditto 17,342
6,73,136

Balance *in favour* of Madras and its dependencies .....Sicca Rupees 12,99,441

COMMERCE WITH FOREIGN ASIA.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from various parts of Foreign Asia in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to various parts of Foreign Asia during the same period.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	19,38,998	38,92,590	58,51,588
1803	27,17,747	18,10,403	45,28,150
1804	22,28,728	21,59,864	43,88,592
1805	21,37,080	25,65,236	47,02,316
1806	18,42,400	20,78,392	39,20,792
Total.	108,84,953	125,06,485	233,91,438

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	45,64,483	1,94,032	47,58,515
1803	45,95,525	2,45,998	48,41,523
1804	46,15,497	1,21,455	47,36,952
1805	40,77,031	19,498	40,96,529
1806	42,33,463	65,756	42,99,219
Total.	220,85,999	6,46,739	227,32,738

Merchandise imported into Madras from Foreign Asia, in 1802 to 1806..... Sicca Rupees 108,84,953
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto 220,85,999

Exports exceed the imports 112,01,046
Treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies during the same period 125,06,485
Ditto exported from ditto 6,46,739
118,59,746

Balance *in favour* of Madras and its dependencies ..... Sicca Rupees 230,60,792

COMMERCE WITH ALL PARTS OF THE WORLD.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Madras and its dependencies from all Parts of the World in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive: likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Madras and its dependencies to all Parts of the World during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	134,61,308	78,89,490	213,50,798
1803	154,54,986	66,76,976	221,40,662
1804	131,15,092	57,23,374	188,35,066
1805	145,47,859	80,70,288	224,18,147
1806	119,81,970	43,52,866	162,54,836
Total.	685,79,445	326,90,994	1010,00,439

EXPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	134,40,324	17,78,333	152,18,657
1803	161,74,418	9,48,992	171,23,080
1804	150,29,798	3,77,351	154,07,149
1805	138,44,270	2,50,464	140,74,734
1806	135,53,355	2,37,597	137,90,952
Total.	720,42,165	35,72,407	756,14,572

Articles of Import in 1805.

Apparel, boots and shoes, &c. Sicca Rs.	48,553
Books and stationery	94,479
Beetle-nut and leaf	5,67,206
Beads	11,128
Carriages	1,597
Cutlery	51,284
Cochineal	102
Chank-shells	5,109
Coral	71,298
China-ware	98,228
Cowries	7,150
Cocoa-nuts and shells	1,02,954
Cotton	2,37,458
Cotton-yarn	5,674
Drugs and dyes	4,39,098
Dates	14,920
Eatables, provisions, &c.	91,969
Furniture	61,514
Elephant's-teeth	9,864
Fruits	44,120
Glass-ware, and looking glasses	1,01,197
Gums	1,72,045
Grain	52,05,839
Gunnies	11,985
Haberdashery	5,190
Carried over.....Sicca Rupees	74,58,421

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods .....Sicca Rupees	53,66,171
Indigo	36,505
Sugar and jaggery	43,460
Grain	38,11,500
Saltpetre	9,759
Cotton	1,75,416
Ginger	7,457
Gunnies and canvas	1,333
Beetle-nut, &c.	1,43,524
Wearing apparel	20,403
Chank-shells	67,930
Carriages	4,893
Cocoa-nuts	2,84,046
Chillies	52,587
Cotton-yarn and thread	8,645
Drugs and dyes	61,742
Dates	15
Naval-stores	71,643
Fruits	13,537
Horses	1,040
Oilman's stores	40,482
Pepper	6,51,184
Precious stones	6,02,088
Provisions	90,885
Salt	1,68,014
Carried over.....Sicca Rupees	117,34,156

Articles of Import in 1805.

Brought over.....Sicca Rupees	74,58,421
Hosiery	20,760
Hats	49,741
Horses	71,153
Ironmongery	30,175
Liquors	16,38,641
Metals	3,90,353
Millinery	42,175
Naval stores	1,88,761
Oilman's stores	1,51,947
Piece-goods	20,44,582
Pepper	4,19,829
Perfumery	40,485
Provisions	91,969
Quicksilver	26,986
Raw-silk	4,01,307
Saddlery	30,585
Spices	1,15,397
Salt	49,090
Sugar candy and jaggery	1,85,047
Sandal-wood	8,983
Timber and plank	2,38,270
Tutenague	33,023
Tea	1,14,827
Tobacco	1,22,370
Woollens	67,431
Various articles	3,06,551
Merchandise	143,47,859
Treasure	80,70,288
Imports in 1805 .....Sicca Rupees	224,18,147

Articles of Export in 1805.

Brought over.....Sicca Rupees	117,34,156
Sandal and sapan-wood	34,317
Spices	89,503
Tobacco and snuff	93,933
Timber	58,642
Turmeric	19,260
Woollens	16,179
Sundries	1,00,622
Imports re-exported, viz.	
Grain	97,096
Coral	64,795
Spice	94,870
Wine	2,88,486
Glass-ware	27,140
Metals	1,54,896
Drugs and dyes	52,936
Liquors	2,48,562
Pepper	62,777
Camphire	6,285
Oilman's stores	28,708
Ironmongery	1,360
Naval stores	29,104
Woollens	20,632
Gums	58,028
Piece-goods	51,534
Provisions	52,098
Sugar and sugar candy	35,180
Timber	53,469
Sundries	2,40,585
Merchandise	138,44,270
Treasure	2,30,464
Exports in 1805 .....Sicca Rupees	140,74,734

From the foregoing statement it appears that the amount of merchandise imported into Madras and its dependencies from all parts of the World in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive, was..... Sicca Rupees 683,09,445

That the amount of merchandise exported during the same period was..... 720,42,165

That the exports exceed the imports..... 37,32,720

That the amount of treasure imported during the same period was..... 326,90,994

That the amount of ditto exported was 35,72,407

291,18,587

Forming a balance *in favour* of Madras in five years..... Sicca Rupees 328,51,307

PRICE CURRENT OF EUROPEAN AND OTHER PRODUCE AT MADRAS.

ARTICES, AND FROM WHENCE.		HOW SOLD.	1809. August. Star Pagodas.		1810. September. Star Pagodas.		1811. August. Star Pagodas.	
			from	to	from	to	from	to
Alum	China	Per candy	15	16	24	28	21	23
Aloes	Westward	Ditto	20	25	16	20	15	20
Ditto	Malay Coast	Ditto	23	24	20	21	23	25
Brimstone	Muscat, fine	Per maund	8	9	8½	9½	10	16
Ditto	Malabar Coast	Per candy	5	6	6	6½	5	5½
Cocculus Indicus	Ceylon	Ditto	20	21	21	24	20	22
Coffee	Mocha	Ditto	70	75	37	42	39	40
Ditto	Caporesty	Per seer	24	26	28	30	30	32
	Carpoes	Ditto	2½	3½	3½	4	4	4½
	Codimes	Ditto	52	100	45	50	45	50
	Filas, large	Ditto	50	52	40	45	48	52
Coral	Filottas	Ditto	14	18	16	17	16	18
	Grocessas	Ditto	14	15	14	15	14	16
	Mallary	Ditto	3½	4	2½	3	5	6
	Mezzanin	Ditto	7	7½	7	7½	7	8
Cotton	Bombay	Per candy	25	26	27	28	30	32
	Westward	Ditto	25	26	27	28	28	30
	Northward	Ditto	26	27	20	21	28	30
	Southward	Ditto	23	24	27	28	33	36
Camphire	China	Per pecul	46	48	70	75	75	80
	Batavia	Ditto	52	53	50	52	52	54
	Malacca	Per lb	5	20	5	10	6	7
China Root	China	Per candy	20	21	19	20	18	20
Coriander seed	Bengal	Ditto	1½	2	3	3½	4	5
Ditto	Northward	Ditto	2	2½	3	3½	5	5½
Cubebs	Malabar Coast	Ditto	37	38	35	36	35	40
Cummin seeds	Bengal	Ditto	9½	9½	13½	15	17	18
	Westward	Ditto	9½	10	13	15	25	26
	Black	Ditto	6½	7	6	7	7	8
Fenugreek	Bengal	Ditto	5½	5½	3	4	5½	6
Galangal	Malabar Coast	Ditto	15	16	15	17	8	12
Ditto	China	Ditto	24	25	25	26	38	40
Ginger, dry	Bengal	Ditto	8	8½	19	23	16	18
Pepper long	Bengal	Ditto	17	17½	28	30	40	41
Ditto, root	Bengal	Ditto	28	30	27	30	28	30
Ditto, ditto	Northward	Ditto	40	45	44	45	34	35
Rhubarb	China	Per pecul	28	30	24	26	25	27
Saffron	Bussorah	Per lb	2½	3	2½	3½	3½	4
Ditto	England	Ditto	4½	5½	4	5	6	7
Senna	Surat	Per candy	12	20	8	15	10	20
Dyes — Indigo	Northward	Per maund	12	13	9	10	9½	10
Ditto	Southward	Per candy	15	20	12	16	12	20
Ditto	Westward	Per maund	6½	7	5	6	7	8
Sapan wood	Malabar	Per candy	9	9½	9	10	5	7
Ditto	Manilla	Ditto	12½	13	11	12	8	9
Elephants' teeth	Pegu	Ditto	170	200	200	220	140	220

ARTICLES, AND FROM WHENCE.		HOW SOLD.	1809. August. Star Pagodas. from	1809. August. Star Pagodas. to	1810. September. Star Pagodas. from	1810. September. Star Pagodas. to	1811. August. Star Pagodas. from	1811. August. Star Pagodas. to
Gums	Amber ..... Acheen	Per candy..	6½	7	7	7½	5½	7
	Ditto white, fine Acheen	Ditto.....	20	22	30	35	26	35
	Arabic ..... Muscat	Ditto.....	10	12	8	10	10	11
	Benjamin ..... Acheen	Ditto.....	58	60	84	100	95	110
	Ditto ..... Benecoolen	Ditto.....	58	60	80	90	55	65
	Hing ..... Bussorah	Ditto.....	250	260	400	450	365	440
Lacc	Gold ..... England	Per roll	7¼	7¼	8	9	5½	8
	Silver ..... England	Ditto.....	4½	5	5	5½	6	6½
Liquors	Ale ..... England	Per hhd.....	34	36	28	30	22	32
	Arrack ..... Columbo	Per leager..	30	31	30	32	33	34
	Brandy ..... America	Per butt....	250	310	250	280	200	280
	Cider ..... England	Per dozen..	4½	5	5	5½	4½	5
	Geneva ..... Holland	Per case	14	15	14	15	14	15
	Perry ..... England	Per dozen..	4½	5	5	6	5½	6
	Cape wine ..... Cape	Per leager..	65	70	80	85	75	80
	Claret ..... England	Per dozen..	13	14	12	13	15	16
	Ditto ..... France	Ditto.....	8	10	9	10	9	10
	Hock ..... Guernsey	Ditto.....	12	13	13	14	14	15
	Madeira ..... 1 year in India	Per pipe....	130	140	150	170	150	170
	Ditto ..... 2 ditto	Ditto.....	150	175	165	180	160	180
	Ditto ..... 3 ditto	Ditto.....	200	220	200	220	190	210
	Ditto ..... 4 ditto	Ditto.....	280	300	280	300	230	260
	Ditto ..... 5 ditto	Ditto.....	330	350	330	350	310	330
	Ditto ..... 6 ditto	Ditto.....	380	400	380	400	360	400
	Port wine ..... Oporto	Per dozen..	4	7	7	8	7	7½
	Teneriffe wine Teneriffe	Per pipe....	90	100	85	95	80	90
Metals	Copper plate ..... England	Per candy..	100	110	95	105	103	120
	Ditto sheet ..... England	Ditto.....	115	120	102	104	110	118
	Japan ..... England	Ditto.....	109	110	100	102	95	100
	Gold ..... Eastward	Per oz.	9⅛	11½	9½	11½	9½	11½
	Iron bars ..... England	Per candy..	23	23½	21	25	22	25
	Iron bolt ..... England	Ditto.....	22½	23	21	25	18	25
	Flat bars ..... England	Ditto.....	19	20	21	25	21	24
	Iron hoops ..... England	Ditto.....	30	35	30	35	27	29
	Iron rod ..... England	Ditto.....	26	27	28	30	27	28
	Lead, sheet ..... England	Ditto.....	26	27	29	30	28	30
	Silver ..... Mexico	Per oz.....	¾	¾	¾	¾	¾	¾
	Steel ..... Denmark	Per candy..	20	22	21	30	29	30
	Steel ..... England	Ditto.....	22	23	29	30	30	37
	Steel ..... Westward	Per 1000 ..	15	18	14	19	18	20
	Tin, in slabs ..... Eastward	Per candy..	45	46	60	62	70	85
	Tin plates ..... England	Per case	17	18	13	14	10	12
	Tutenague ..... China	Per candy..	73	75	95	102	105	120
Naval Stores	Anchors ..... England	Per cwt.....	8½	9	9	12	8	9
	Cables 10 to 16in. England	Ditto.....	12	12½	14	18	15	16
	Canvas ..... England	Per bolt....	10	11	12	14	14	15
	Ditto ..... Bengal	Ditto.....	3	3½	5	7	5	6
	Cordage 1 to 5in. England	Per cwt.....	10	11	14	18	15	16
	Pitch ..... England	Per barrel..	10	11	11	13	7	8
	Tar ..... England	Ditto.....	10	11	10½	12½	8	10
	Twine ..... England	Per candy..	150	180	180	200	166	170
Opium	..... Westward	Per 3 viss..	24	25	29	30	22	24

ARTICLES, AND FROM WHENCE		HOW SOLD	1809. August. Star Pagodas. from	to	1810. September. Star Pagodas. from	to	1811. August. Star Pagodas. from	to
Oils of	Cinnamon ..... Ceylon	Per 20 oz.	9½	10	9	10	7	9
	Cloves ..... Amboyna	Ditto	14½	15	8	9	4	6
	Linseed ..... England	Per gall	1	1½	1½	1¾	1	1¼
	Nutmegs ..... Amboyna	Per 20 oz.	8	8½	7	7½	5	6
	Sweet ..... England	Per dozen	4	9	5	6	8	8½
	Turpentine ..... England	Per gall	2½	2½	2½	2½	1½	2
	Wood ..... Pegu	Per candy	18	20	18	20	13	14
Oilman's Stores	Cheese ..... England	Per lb	1/8	¼	1/8	¼	1/8	1/6
	Hams ..... England	Ditto	¼	½	¼	1/3	¼	1/3
	Red lead ..... England	Per candy	30	32	28	32	30	32
	White ditto ..... England	Ditto	40	42	50	60	50	53
	Black ..... England	Per keg	6	7	9	10	7	8
	Blue ..... England	Ditto	8	8½	10½	11	8	9
	Green ..... England	Ditto	12	12½	13	14	13	14
	Red ..... England	Ditto	2	2½	2½	3	2	2½
	Yellow ..... England	Ditto	2½	3	2½	3	2½	3
	White ..... England	Ditto	3½	4	6	6½	4	4½
Quicksilver ..... China		Per pecul	45	46	70	73	80	85
Sandal wood ..... Malabar		Per candy	30	50	15	30	30	85
Sago ..... Malacca		Ditto	9	9½	13	15	17	20
Sticklac ..... Pegu		Ditto	30	31	30	32	15	19
Silk	Raw Castoory ..... China	Per maund	40	45	38	45	50	55
	Radnagore ..... Bengal	Ditto	43	45	30	35	26	50
	Cardamums ..... Pegu	Per candy	95	100	100	120	95	100
	Cinnamon ..... Ceylon	Per maund	18	20	18	20	25	30
	Cassia ..... China	Per candy	60	62	70	75	67	75
	Cloves ..... Moluccas	Per maund	13	15	10	12	9½	10½
Spices	Mace ..... Amboyna	Ditto	187	200	60	65	70	75
	Nutmegs ..... Amboyna	Ditto	87	88	30	32	26	28
	Spices ..... Malabar	Per candy	18	19	19	21	17	19
	Ditto ..... Malay Coast	Ditto	16	17	17	19	17	19
	Ditto ..... Pinang	Ditto	16	17	17	18½	16	18
Sugar ..... Bengal		Ditto	29	29½	17	19	17	19
	Batavia	Ditto	16	17			31	33
Turmeric ..... Northward		Ditto	10	11	12	13	12	13
Ditto, Curry ..... Northward		Ditto	6	7	5	5½	4	5
Terra Japonica	Bengal	Ditto	9	9½	5	6½	9	10
	Malabar	Ditto	20	22	17	19	16	19
	Pegu	Ditto	10	10½	8	8½	8½	9
Wax	Pegu	Ditto	85	86	67	68	65	68
	Northward	Ditto	73	74	58	59	60	62
	Westward	Ditto	77	78	58	59	60	62
Cochineal ..... England		Per lb	5	6½	4½	6	5½	6½
Corks ..... England		Per gross	½	¾	½	¾	½	¾
Ale in bottles ..... England		Per dozen	2½	3	2½	3½	2½	3
Tobacco, shag ..... England		Per lb	¼	½	¼	½	¼	½
Ditto, pigtail ..... England		Ditto	¼	½	¼	½	¼	½
Shot, patent ..... England		Per cwt	8	9	8½	9½	8½	9
Vinegar ..... England		Per gallon	½	¾	½	¾	½	¾
Lead, pig ..... England		Per candy	25	26	28	29	28	29
Tea, black ..... China		Per lb	¼	½	¼	½	¼	½
Ditto, green ..... China		Ditto	¼	1½	¼	1½	¼	1½

PRICE CURRENT OF PRECIOUS STONES AT MADRAS.

DIAMONDS.	HOW SOLD.	1809. August. Star Pagodas.		1810. September. Star Pagodas.		1811. August. Star Pagodas.	
		from	to	from	to	from	to
Flat	6 in 1 mangalin	Per mang.	12	14	13	18	14	19
	5 in 1 ditto	Ditto	14	20	15	20	16	20
	4 in 1 ditto	Ditto	20	22	18	20	17	21
	3 in 1 ditto	Ditto	25	30	16	22	19	22
	2 in 1 ditto	Ditto	30	35	32	35	34	39
	1 in 1 ditto	Ditto	30	100	30	100	35	90
Rose	3 to 8 in 1 ditto	Ditto	22	32	25	30	30	35
	9 to 20 ditto	Ditto	22	32	25	30	30	35
	21 to 30 ditto	Ditto	22	32	25	30	30	35
	1 in 1 ditto	Ditto	30	60	30	45	35	50
	1 in 1½ ditto	Ditto	40	100	40	50	40	50
	1 in 2 ditto	Ditto	40	160	100	120	100	130
	1 in 3 ditto	Ditto	110	310	200	250	200	280
Rough	1 in 2 ditto	Ditto	11	15	15	21	16	22
	1 in 1½ ditto	Ditto	10	13	12	14	13	15
	1 in 1 ditto	Ditto	9	10	9	11	10	12
	1 in ½ ditto	Ditto	8	9	8	9	9	10
	3 in 1 ditto	Ditto	7	7½	7	8	8	8½
	5 in 1 ditto	Ditto	6½	7	6	7	7	7½
	Small	Ditto	5	5½	5	5½	5	5½
PEARLS.								
1st sort	1st sort anny	Per chow	10	15	10	16	10	13
	2d ditto kyer	Ditto	3	6	4	6	5	8
	3d ditto samoodogum	Ditto	5	6	3	4	4	5
	4th ditto ardasamoodogum	Ditto	3	4	2½	3	3	3½
2d class	1st sort annyvadivee	Ditto	6	10	8	12	8	13
	2d ditto rasyvadivee	Ditto	4	4½	4	5	5	6
	3d ditto samroyamvadivee	Ditto	2	2½	3	4	3½	4
3d class	1st ditto kooroogaloo	Perkalangoo	6	9	12	15	15	20
	2d ditto ditto	Ditto	4	6	7	10	8	12
	3d ditto ditto	Ditto	2	3	5	6	6	7
Soor	1st sort	Per seer	80	100	100	105	120	130
	2d ditto	Ditto	60	80	70	80	70	80
	3d ditto	Ditto	50	60	50	60	60	70
RUBIES.								
8 weighing 1 gold or Tanjore fanam		Per corge	1	3	1½	3	1	3
6 ditto		Ditto	1	5	3	6	2½	5
5 ditto		Ditto	1	6	4	8	3½	7
4 ditto		Ditto	2	10	6	10	5½	9
3 ditto		Ditto	3	15	8	15	8	14
2 ditto		Ditto	3	30	10	40	10	37
1 ditto		Ditto	4	50	10	50	11	50
Emeralds		Per rathy	2	20	2	25	2	25

CUSTOM HOUSE REGULATIONS.

The following rules and regulations for levying duties on commerce were enacted by the Governor in Council, to take effect, and be in force on and after October 1, 1803.

A duty shall be levied on goods imported or exported by sea at the Port of Madras, under the restrictions and provisions contained in these regulations.

A tariff of the average market wholesale prices of all commodities shall be established on the most equitable grounds, and on the most accurate information. The tariff shall be open at the Custom House to the inspection of all persons during the hours of business, which are from ten o'clock in the morning till four o'clock in the afternoon, Sundays excepted.

IMPORT DUTIES.

The duty on articles (except beetle, tobacco, ganjah, bang, and goodauck) imported on British vessels, or on vessels belonging to the native inhabitants of the British territories in India, or to subjects of the native powers of Asia, shall be levied on the value of such articles, computed at the tariff prices, at the rate of ..... 6 per cent.

The duty on articles (except as above) imported on American vessels, shall be levied on the value of such articles, computed at the tariff prices, at the same rate as on articles imported in British vessels, conformable to the 13th article of the treaty with America, dated November 19, 1794 ..... 6 ditto.

The duty on articles (except as above) imported on foreign vessels (American vessels excepted), or from foreign settlements, shall be levied on the value of such articles, computed at the tariff prices, at the rate of ..... 8 ditto.

The duty on grain imported at Madras (except from Bengal) on vessels of all nations, shall be levied at the rate of ..... 3 ditto.

The duty on beetle, tobacco, ganjah, bang, and goodauck imported by sea, shall be levied at the rates hereunder specified, *viz.*

On beetle-nut, at the rate of	1	fanam per bundle of 400 leaves.
On tobacco of all kinds	5	ditto per viss.
On ganjah	73	ditto.
On bang	11½	ditto.
On goodauck	3	ditto.

A notification shall be sent by the Collector of Customs, through the Master Attendant, to the Commanders of all ships coming into the roads, requiring them to transmit a true and complete manifest of all the goods and merchandise laden on board, agreeable to an established printed form.

The Commander, or Supercargo, of every vessel importing, shall deliver in his manifest at the office of the Collector of Customs; and in cases in which the Collector or his Deputy shall consider it to be necessary, he shall annex the following form of an affidavit to the manifest, which shall be sworn to before a Justice of the Peace.

"Commander of the ship maketh oath and saith, that the annexed manifest, to the best of his knowledge and belief, contains a true and just account of all goods and merchandise imported on the said ship, into Madras Roads, on his account, or on account of the owners; and that the sums written opposite to the articles, are the true and just prime cost."

When the above forms shall have been observed, permits shall be granted to land the goods, under the signature of the Collector of Customs, or of his Deputy.

No articles shall be shipped or landed without a permit granted as above described.

Any merchandise landed, or attempted to be landed, before the manifests shall have been regularly entered at the office of the Collector of Customs, and a permit obtained; and all goods or merchandise landed, or attempted to be landed, that may not have been inserted in the manifest, shall be charged with double duty; or in the event of its being proved to the satisfaction of the Board of Revenue, that the goods were attempted to be landed with a view of defrauding the Customs, they shall be liable to confiscation.

All goods (except such as may be shipped or landed on account of the Honourable Company) shall be shipped or landed at the ghaut opposite to the Custom-house. Goods or packages shipped from, or landed at any other place, shall be charged with double duty.

All officers of Government having orders to ship or land goods, stores, or other articles, the property of the Honourable Company, shall apply to the Collector of Customs for a permit to land or ship such goods, stores, or other articles, and shall furnish to the Collector an invoice of the whole of the articles which may be shipped or landed under such permit.

All goods (except belonging to the Company) on being landed, shall be immediately brought to the Custom-house; and when required to be passed, a written application in the following form shall be made for that purpose to the Collector of Customs. Applications made in any other form will not be attended to.

To the Collector of Customs.

Please to permit the under-mentioned goods to pass the Custom-house on account of

Sir,

Madras, 181 Your obedient Servant,

Date.	No. and nature of packages.	Name of Vessel.	Under what Colours.	Whence imported.	Sorts of Goods.	Quantity of Goods.	Rates.	Total Value.
							N. B. These are to be left blank, and filled up from the public tariff.	

If the duty on the goods specified in the application, shall have been paid, or satisfactory security given for the payment, the Collector of Customs, or his Deputy, shall subjoin his permit to "weigh," or "examine," or if no duty shall be chargeable, to "pass" such goods.

Goods attempted to be conveyed away from the Custom-house without a permit, or goods differing from those specified in the permit, attempted to be carried away under such permit, shall be charged with double duty; or in the event of its being proved to the Board of Revenue that the goods were attempted to be carried away, with an intention of defrauding the Revenue, such goods shall be liable to confiscation.

Betle, tobacco, ganjah, bang, and goodauck, smuggled, or attempted to be smuggled, shall be liable to seizure, and to confiscation, or to double duty, as may be determined by the Board of Revenue on a consideration of the case.

The duty on liquors, or other articles of merchandise imported, which shall be stated to be sour or damaged, shall be levied at the rates prescribed, on the amount of the sales by public auction at the Custom-house; provided the importer shall consent to the sale of such liquors, or other articles of merchandise, otherwise on the value computed at the tariff prices.

All piece-goods imported for sale, shall be stamped by the Collector of Customs with the Company's mark; piece-goods offered for sale, or found without such stamp, shall be liable to confiscation.

Piece-goods imported in bales packed, and screwed for re-exportation, shall not be opened for the purpose of being stamped, as prescribed by the foregoing section, provided that a correct statement of the contents of each bale be presented to the Collector of Customs, and the truth of such statement be sworn to before a magistrate by the owner, if on the spot, or by the parties to whom such goods are consigned. When such statement shall have been presented and authenticated, as above prescribed, the import duties shall be levied at the established rates.

Persons who, having entered and passed bales for re-exportation, may afterwards wish to sell such goods by retail, shall apply to the Collector of Customs to chop each piece. The Collector of Customs, on such application, shall stamp such goods free of charge.

The following articles shall be exempt from the payment of duty:—

I. Goods, the property of the Honourable Company, on the production of a certificate to that effect.

II. Copper purchased at the Company's sales at any of the other Presidencies in India, if sold on the condition of being exempt from the payment of duty.

III. Sugar, the manufacture of the Company's territories, subject to the Presidency of Fort St. George, on the production of a satisfactory certificate to that effect.

IV. Arrack and rum, the manufacture of Bengal.

V. Treasure, bullion, jewels, and precious stones.

VI. Horses.

VII. Grain imported from Bengal.

The Collector shall nevertheless register the amount of such goods imported free of duty.

The Head Assistant to the Collector of the Customs shall supply gunny bags for the landing of grain imported in bulk, and shall charge for the use of such bags, at the rate of two fanams for every twenty-five bags of grain imported.

The Collector of Customs may receive and lodge in the yard or warehouse of the Custom-house any goods or articles of merchandise imported, and shall grant receipts on application for all goods landed from ships, and so lodged in the Custom-house. The Collector of Customs shall be held responsible for delivering from the Custom-house all goods, for which receipts shall have been so granted.

If goods shall remain longer than seven days in the yard or warehouse of the Custom-house, such goods shall be liable to a charge for godown, or warehouse rent, at the following rates:

TABLE OF GODOWN RENT.

		P.	F.	C.
Bales of Punjum cloth	per month	0	30	0
Ditto cotton, each ½ candy	ditto	0	16	0
Ditto taffaties of 120 pieces	ditto	0	48	0
Ditto raw silk, size in proportion	ditto	0	48	0
Opium, per chest	ditto	0	16	0
Chests of indigo, each	ditto	0	12	0
Ditto wine, 12 dozen each	ditto	0	12	0
Snuff, per chest	ditto	0	32	0
Wine or arrack, per pipe or leager	ditto	1	19	0
Rice, per bag	ditto	0	5	0
Saltpetre, ditto	ditto	0	8	0
Ghee, per candy	ditto	0	40	0
Chillies, ditto	ditto	0	24	0
Tamarinds, per candy	per month	0	24	0
Hing, ditto	ditto	0	44	0
Coir, ditto	ditto	0	40	0
Dry cocoa-nut, ditto	ditto	0	24	0
Oil, per cask	ditto	0	24	0
Dates, per candy	ditto	0	40	0
Sugar, ditto	ditto	0	44	0
Ivory, ditto	ditto	0	24	0
Tea, ditto	ditto	0	24	0
China root, per chest or box	ditto	0	40	0
Brimstone, per candy	ditto	0	40	0
Iron and copper, ditto	ditto	0	30	0
All other dry goods, ditto	ditto	0	24	0

No packages, bales, chests, or parcels of goods of any kind, shall be received into the godowns, unless marked or numbered, and no receipt shall be granted for any packages not marked or numbered.

All goods which may not be claimed and cleared out of the Custom-house within forty days, shall be liable to be advertised, and sold by public auction, under the orders of the Board of Revenue. The amount proceeds of the sale, after deducting the duty, and charges of the warehousing, shall be given to the proprietor.

In the event of the owner not being on the spot, the amount realized from the sales of the goods, after deducting the charges of warehousing, and the duty, shall be retained in deposit for a period of twelve months; after which period, should not the owner of the goods, nor any person duly empowered on his part, have appeared to claim the amount of the proceeds of the sale of such goods, it shall be carried to the account of the Honourable Company.

An account of all private packages received or delivered from the warehouse of the Custom-house, shall be kept by the Collector of Customs, and publication shall be made by him from time to time in the Government Gazette of all unclaimed packages.

The Collector of Customs shall pass at his discretion, free of duty, the baggage of individuals arriving on ships from England, on a written application being presented, specifying the number and description of packages, provided he shall be satisfied that no articles contained therein are intended for sale, but that the whole are *bonâ fide* for the private use of the parties.

The exemption from the payment of duty shall in like manner be extended to private baggage arriving from any port in India; but the exemption must in such cases be understood to be strictly confined to articles *bonâ fide* private baggage. Goods imported in the piece, such as long-cloth, muslin, &c. and all articles not of the description of private baggage, shall be charged with duty at the established rate.

The importation of the following articles is prohibited; and such articles imported without authority, shall, on proof thereof, be confiscated.

I. Articles comprised by law in the exclusive trade of the Honourable Company.

II. Articles the importation of which is prohibited by Act of Parliament.

III. Military stores of all descriptions.

Goods transshipped in the roads, shall be charged with the same rate of duty which such goods would have been liable to, if imported.

Application for permits for transshipping goods, shall be made to the Collector of Customs in the following form: applications made in any other form shall not be attended to.

To the Collector of Customs.

Please permit the under-mentioned goods to be transshipped on account of

Sir,

Madras, 181 Your obedient Servant,

Date.	From what Vessel.	Colours.	From whence.	On what to be transshipped.	Under what Colours.	Whither bound.	No. and nature of Packages.	Sorts.	Quantity	Rates.

The permit for transshipping goods, signed by the Collector of Customs, shall be sufficient authority to the Master Attendant for supplying boats to transship such goods.

Goods transshipped without permission first obtained from the Collector of Customs, or shipped, or attempted to be shipped upon any other vessels than that for which they may have been passed, shall be charged with double duty; or in the event of its being proved to the satisfaction of the Board of Revenue, that the goods were so transshipped, or shipped on another vessel than that specified in the permit, such goods shall be liable to confiscation.

EXPORT DUTIES.

All goods intended for exportation, shall be regularly entered at the Custom-house, and application shall be made in the following form, for permission to ship such goods.

To the Collector of Customs.

Please to permit to be exported the under-mentioned goods on account of

Madras, 181 Sir, your obedient Servant,

Date.	No. and Nature of Packages.	Name of Vessel.	Under what Colours.	Whither bound.	Sorts of Goods.	Rates of Manufacture or Produce.	Quantity of Goods.	Rates.
							These to be filled up from the tariff.	

Applications not conformable to the above form, shall not be attended to.

Goods exported on foreign vessels (American vessels excepted) shall be charged with an export duty on the value of such goods, computed at the tariff prices, at the rate of 2 per cent.

Goods exported on British or American vessels, or on vessels belonging to native inhabitants of the British territories in India, or to subjects of native powers of Asia, shall be exempt from the payment of duty; such goods shall nevertheless be registered by the Collector of Customs, and their value computed at the tariff prices.

Goods attempted to be shipped without a regular permit on British or American vessels, or on vessels belonging to native inhabitants of the British territories, or to subjects of the native powers of Asia, shall be charged with an export duty of 6 per cent. on the value computed at the tariff prices.

Goods attempted to be shipped on foreign vessels (American vessels excepted) without a regular permit, or goods differing from those specified in the permit, attempted to be carried away, or to be shipped under such permit, shall be charged with duty at the rate of eight per cent.; or in the event of its being proved to the satisfaction of the Board of Revenue, that the goods were so attempted to be shipped, with a view of defrauding the revenue, such goods shall be liable to confiscation.

Whenever goods shall be stopped, on the ground of their being liable to confiscation, the Collector of Customs shall submit the case, without delay, to the Board of Revenue for their decision.

The Board of Revenue are empowered, in cases in which they may see reason to do so, to impose a fine on parties offending against this regulation in lieu of confiscating the goods of such parties so offending, in the manner prescribed.

The Collector of Customs is empowered to levy a commission of five per cent. on the amount of the duty collected on goods imported or exported, and upon the amount of duty computed on goods imported or exported, free of duty, on the same principles as if the goods were liable to the payment of such duty; and in cases in which goods shall become liable to be charged with additional duty, the Collector is empowered to levy a commission on the amount of such additional duty.

The amount of the commission shall be divided between the Collector and his Deputy in the proportion of three-fifths to the Collector, and two-fifths to the Deputy Collector.

The following articles are declared to be exempt, both from the payment of duty and of commission.

I. Treasure imported or exported.

II. Horses imported or exported.

III. Goods the property of the Honourable Company.

No individuals shall be exempted from the payment of duties established by this regulation, unless by a special order from the Governor in Council.

The Collector of Customs shall require from Commanders of all vessels exporting, previously to granting port-clearances, true and complete manifests of the cargoes of such vessels; and if he considers it to be necessary, shall require such Commanders to make oath to the truth of such manifests.

Port-clearances shall be granted to the Commanders of all vessels clearing out from the port of Madras, provided the Commanders shall have furnished the manifests required by the foregoing section, and produce the certificate of the Boat-Paymaster that all charges in that department have been paid.

The Collector of Customs is empowered to charge for his own benefit,

	P.	F.	P.
For every port-clearance, on every vessel, except paddy boats	1	24	0
For every paddy boat	0	20	0
For every bale imported or exported in foreign vessels (American vessels excepted)	1	0	0

and shall not deliver the port-clearance until such charge shall have been paid.

Goods which may have been imported declaredly for re-exportation, previously to the publication of this regulation, shall on re-exportation within the prescribed period of nine months from the date of their importation, be entitled to a drawback of the whole duty paid on importation, conformably to the provisions of the existing regulations.

Official bills shall be given by the Collector of Customs for all charges made by him, whether for duties, warehousing, commission, or for port-clearances, and generally for all charges made by him under this regulation.

All goods which may be confiscated by order of the Board of Revenue, shall be sold by public auction at the office of the Collector of Customs.

The proceeds of the sales of goods confiscated by order of the Board of Revenue, or the amount of the fine which they may order to be levied in lieu of confiscating the goods, shall be divided as follows, viz. one fifth between the Collector of Customs and his Deputy, in the proportion of two thirds to the former, and one third to the latter: two fifths to the person or persons on whose information the seizure of the goods may have been made, and two fifths to the Honourable Company.

Table of Exchange for the Adjustment of the Customs at Madras.

COUNTRIES.	COINS.	RATE OF EXCHANGE.
Great Britain	Pound sterling	At 2 pagodas 21 fanams.
Denmark	Rix-dollar	At 21 fanams each.
France	Livre tournois	24 for 3 pagodas 3.
France	Mauritius livre	48 for 3 pagodas 3.
Spain	Spanish dollar	At 28 fanams 40 cash each.
Portugal and Madeira	Milres	At 35 fanams 30 cash each.
China	Tale	At 1 pagoda.
Bengal	Sicca rupee	765 Siccarupees per 100 pagodas.
Bombay	Bombay rupee	350 rupees per 100 pagodas.
Masulipatam	3 Swamy pagoda	1 pagoda, 4 fanams, 40 cash.

American currency to be converted into pounds sterling as follows:

New England and Virginia .....by multiplying by three and dividing by four.
New York .....by multiplying by nine and dividing by sixteen.
Pennsylvania .....by multiplying by three and dividing by five.
South Carolina and Georgia .....by deducting the 27th part.

REGULATIONS FOR THE BEACH DEPARTMENT.

The following are extracted from the general regulations for this department, being those which are most essential to ships visiting this settlement.

The Master-Attendant is responsible in the first instance for all losses by theft or embezzlement on board the boats.

No master or owner of a vessel shall employ his own boat in landing goods, so long as the Master-Attendant shall be able to supply him with boats from the number kept up for the service of the port; but whenever it may happen that the Master-Attendant shall be unable to comply with any demand for boats, any owner or master of a vessel shall, on representation of the fact to the Board of Trade, be at liberty, with their sanction, to employ his own boat in unloading his vessel, subject to no other regulations but those established at the Sea Customer's Office respecting duties and port-clearances, the articles of ballast, water, and tarpawlings excepted; but no Captain or owner shall be at liberty to let out his boat for hire, under any pretence whatsoever, for the service of any other vessel.

As much delay and inconvenience have been experienced from vessels anchoring at too great a distance, any vessel that may anchor farther from the shore than in eight fathoms water, will not be entitled to boats for any other purpose than water and provisions, unless on the approach of bad weather, when it might be considered unsafe to anchor nearer to the shore, and in such case double boat-hire to be charged. No greater number of boats to be allotted to any ship than she is able to keep constantly employed, of which the Master-Attendant is to be the judge.

No goods or property whatever to be landed or shipped after six o'clock P. M.; and in case of any deviation from this regulation, the risk and responsibility to be on the proprietor.

RATES OF BOAT-HIRE.

The following are the established rates of boat-hire to be charged in future, viz.

For each trip to vessels in the South Road..... 15 fanams.
For ditto.....in the North Road..... 10 ditto.

All double trips to be charged as such, and transshipping to be at the rate of a trip in the North Roads, and the Boat-Paymaster to charge double hire to such as lay at too great a distance from shore.

For every boat employed on a Sunday, an additional charge to the above of 7 fanams.

Persons transshipping goods in the roads, to be charged with the hire of the boat to and from the beach, in addition to the rate above mentioned, which is defrayed by the employer of the boat.

For stores transported by sea from the Marine-yard to the Beach-house, &c. the same rate of hire to be paid as for a boat employed in the South Roads.

Boats receiving or delivering articles at the back of the surfs, are to be charged full boat-hire.

For shipping and landing to and from the King's ships, when lying in more than eight fathoms water, double boat-hire is to be charged.

Boats going from any part to the north of the southernmost line of buildings, nearest to the North Esplanade, to vessels lying to the southward of the N. E. angle of the fort, that is, when such vessel lies from this last situation to the southward of the fort, in the same manner of bearing, the boats are to be paid the hire of one trip and a half for each trip; likewise from the beach-house to vessels lying to the S. E. angle of the fort, a trip and a quarter for each trip.

Vessels only lying to the north of the southernmost line of buildings nearest to the North Esplanade, are to be considered as lying in the North Road. Vessels also lying to the southward of this line, are to be considered as lying in the South Road, and subject to the hire of the latter situation.

Vessels in the North Road, with an exception to those commanded by Europeans, and of whatever description lying without seven fathoms, are to be charged the hire of one North Road trip and a half for each trip; likewise when lying in 7¼ fathoms water, the hire of two North Road trips, which latter is about equal to the hire with which vessels are charged in the South Road, when lying in this last depth of water.

Vessels commanded by Europeans, and lying in the North Road, to be charged as has been usual, the hire of vessels that lie in the South Road.

CHARGES FOR BALLAST.

Each load of ballast is to consist of 120 baskets of sand. The baskets to be compared with a master basket at the Master Attendant's, and a seal or chop affixed to each, and no other made use of. The prices are as follow, *viz.*

For every boat load of ballast delivered in the South Road ..... 4 fanams.
For ditto ..... in the North Road ..... 3 ditto.

over and above the rate of boat hire already notified.

EXPENCES OF WATERING.

Each boat load of water to consist of two tons, or four butts, sent off full. The water to be of the best quality. The price of each boat load of water to be 55 fanams 40 cash.

The great distance that vessels now lay from the place of watering, by their removal opposite to the new Custom-house, will render it necessary for their moving opposite the watering-place to receive this article, which will not be sent on board in any other situation in or near the roads, unless they are in absolute distress for it, in which case to pay an additional half trip of 7 fanams 30 cash, for vessels commanded by Europeans; and 4 fanams 75 cash, for vessels commanded by natives, for each trip.

For every water cask not sent back by the returning boat, the Owner or Master to pay the Master Attendant a fine, at the rate of four fanams each day it may be detained on board any vessel; and for every water or liquor butt not landed before the delivery of the port clearance, the Owner or Master to pay the Master Attendant eight pagodas, and for every puncheon or gang cask four pagodas.

In order to obviate complaints respecting the unnecessary detention of boats alongside of vessels, and of their being imperfectly manned, &c. a printed paper will be lodged at the Sea-Customer's office, to be delivered to every commander upon his taking out the certificate granted, on swearing to his manifest, as prescribed by the regulations for levying customs: the above-mentioned printed paper to be sent on board previously to the landing or receiving of the cargo, for the purpose of being filled up and signed by the officer commanding on board. When the vessels shall be ready for departure, the said paper is to be delivered to the Sea-Customer, who is directed not to grant a port-clearance until the above be complied with; the paper to be forwarded immediately by the Sea-Customer, to the Secretary to the Board of Trade. No boat to be detained alongside any vessel more than an hour, or to be entitled to double hire, and all responsibility to be on the commander or commanding officer of such vessel.

LIGHTHOUSE DUES.

In the year 1796 a lighthouse was erected on the Exchange in Fort St. George, which is of essential service to ships coming into the roads in the night; it is 90 feet above the level of the sea at high water, and may be seen from the mast-head of an East Indiaman above eight leagues.

The following table of rates is established towards defraying the charges of it.

Ships or vessels	50 tons and under	¼	pagoda.
Ditto	50 to 100 tons	½	ditto.
Ditto	100 to 200 ditto	1	ditto.
Ditto	200 to 300 ditto	1½	ditto.
Ditto	300 to 400 ditto	2	ditto.
Ditto	400 to 500 ditto	2½	ditto.
Ditto	500 to 600 ditto	3	ditto.
Ditto	600 to 700 ditto	3½	ditto.
Ditto	700 to 800 ditto	4	ditto.
Ditto	800 to 900 ditto	4½	ditto.
Ditto	900 and upwards	5	ditto.

No vessels to pay for the lights more than twice during the year.

SALVAGE OF ANCHORS.

The following regulations are established in regard to anchors when received.

That the anchors when received, be delivered as directed to the Boat-Paymaster.

That they remain exposed to public view six months, to give the owners a fair opportunity of identifying their property; and further to facilitate this object, that one pagoda per cwt. be allowed to the divers and catamaran people for *each* anchor, if brought on shore with its stock and remaining part of the cable; but that half a pagoda only per cwt. be allowed if brought on shore without the stock and remaining part of the cable, or if otherwise defaced.

That the Boat-Paymaster keep a register of all anchors reported to him to be lost, particularizing the day of the report, with the date of recovery, and all expences to which the owner is liable.

That such register be opened at the Boat-Paymaster's office for general inspection.

The usual salvage to be allowed to the Master-Attendant on all such anchors as may be returned to the owners.

The Master-Attendant to be answerable for the full value of the anchor, provided its owner can satisfy the Board of Trade that the buoy had been cut off, or any other fraud committed by the divers, catamaran men, or any person subordinate to the Master-Attendant's office.

For every anchor returned to its owner, the Master-Attendant is to pay out of his salvage one pagoda per cwt. to be divided equally amongst the divers and catamaran people.

For every unclaimed anchor found in the road, the Honourable Company to pay the usual hire to the divers and catamaran people.

RATES OF COOLEY-HIRE.

A bandy drawn by four bullocks	8 fanams.
Ditto by two ditto	4 ditto.
A cooley load	1 ditto.

HIRE OF PALANQUIN BEARERS.

A set of bearers on field service, each per month	Pagodas 2 0 0
Head bearer ditto	2 11 20
A set of bearers at the Presidency, each ditto	1 33 60
Head bearer, ditto	2 0 0
A set of bearers at the Presidency, batta on travelling days only, each per day	0 1 0

N. B. Two pagodas a month being exclusively a field pay, is understood to be in lieu of batta and all other demands; and bearers at the Presidency are entitled to demand no higher pay than one pagoda and three-quarters per month.

WAGES USUALLY ALLOWED TO SERVANTS.

Cook	per month 3 pagodas.	Palanquin rent	per month 4 40 pagodas.
Pantryman	8 ditto.	Ditto bearers as above.	
2 Watermen	4 ditto.	Kittisol boy	a month 3 0 pagodas.
Necessary-man	each 2 ditto.	Conyecoplys	each 5 0 ditto.
2 Peons	each 5 ditto.	Second dubash or servant	10 pagodas for the time.

Two peons to watch any goods that may be left on the beach, each two pagodas per month.

PASSPORT REGULATIONS.

The Right Honourable the Governor in Council having reason to be satisfied of the total inefficiency of the present practice of regulating passports, either to prevent the passage of unauthorized travellers, to trace the route and the pretensions of those of doubtful character, or to ensure the free progress of those who are duly authorized, has been pleased to establish the following orders for the regulation and controul of all passports granted under the Presidency of Fort St. George.

I. That from and after the first of June next, the Secretary of Government in the public department shall be charged with the general controul and direction of all passports granted within the territories of Fort St. George.

II. That passports of the prescribed form, capable of being recognised by natives as well as Europeans, in sewed books, with a cheque margin for the insertion of the name of the person, and number and date of the passport, (for the purpose of preventing forgeries by comparison when returned), shall be issued by the Secretary of Government to all persons who shall be authorized to grant them, viz. To the Resident in Mysore, and to all Collectors for their respective districts, with an exception of seaports where there is a Commercial Resident, who will always regulate the passports of the port where he resides; to the Town Major of Fort St. George, for military persons belonging to that garrison; to the Adjutant-General of the Army, for all other military persons leaving the Presidency; and to such officers commanding military stations, as shall be authorized to grant passports. These stations shall be determined in the first instance, and from time to time when any changes of stations may occur, by the Secretary of Government, in communication with the Adjutant-General of the Army. The Secretary of Government will himself regulate the receipts and issue at the Presidency of all passports to persons not military.

III. That all persons authorized to grant passports, shall keep a register in a prescribed form, blank books of which will be likewise transmitted of all passports received, and another of all passports issued.

IV. That all travellers, on arriving at a station, shall deliver their passport to the proper officer, who shall register its receipt in the same manner as on granting one; and if the bearer proceeds farther, shall issue a new passport in exchange, noting on the old one the date of its receipt, and at the end of each month sending by the post all passports received, to the person by whom they appear to have been granted.

V. That the Secretary of Government in the public department shall keep a general register of all travellers, and passports granted, to enable him to correct which, all public officers, authorized to grant or receive passports, shall transmit to him monthly a copy of their register of passports granted and received during the month, and shall be held responsible for the application of the exact number of blank passports with which they have respectively been furnished by the Secretary.

VI. That passports to military persons shall be granted by military officers exclusively, and to all other persons by civil officers exclusively; but in cases of urgency, a military officer, in the absence of the civil authority, and a civil officer in the absence of the military authority, may pass a traveller to the next post or station, by endorsing his passport with the words "Pass to ," noting the date, entering in his register the particulars of the passport, in the same manner as if he had granted a new one, and entering the word "endorsed" in the column of remarks.

VII. Any traveller stating that he has lost his passport, shall invariably be detained, until a duplicate shall have been obtained.

VIII. Public officers having received a passport authorizing them to travel post on the public service, shall not be compelled to wait for the exchange of their passports, nor be subjected to any part of these regulations which involve delay.

IX. All public officers authorized to grant or receive passports, shall report to the Secretary of Government any irregularity or deviation from the established rules which may come under their observation, together with all remarks regarding the conduct and apparent views of travellers, which may appear proper and necessary to be communicated for the purposes of further enquiry. And all public officers authorized to issue passports, are also empowered, on sufficient information of incorrect conduct or improper views, to refuse a fresh passport for the continuance of a journey already commenced, (reporting the detention to the Secretary of Government, by the post of the day), or even to restrain until further orders the person of the traveller, if such a measure shall in their judgment appear to be necessary.

X. For the convenience of official arrangement, all letters relating to passports shall be superscribed "Passport service."

ADDITIONAL REGULATIONS.

Notice is hereby given, that from and after the 1st day of July next, no European person, of whatever rank, description, or country, will be permitted to travel through the Company's dominions subject to this Presidency, unless he shall be regularly furnished with passports for that purpose.

The only exception which the Right Honourable the Governor General in Council has been pleased to make to the foregoing resolution, is in favour of officers commanding parties of His Majesty's or the Honourable Company's troops.

All persons about to travel, are accordingly required to take out a passport from the Collector of the district in which they may reside, or in places where there may be no Collector, from the commanding officer of the nearest garrison; which certificate or passport shall be produced to the next Collector or commanding officer, who are authorized to cancel it, if necessary, and to issue a fresh passport.

And European persons of all descriptions are hereby warned that whoever shall be found travelling without a passport, will be taken up, and confined until a report of his case can be made to the Presidency.

Notice is hereby farther given, that a reward of ten pagodas will be paid to any person who shall take up and bring into the nearest garrison, any European deserter or vagrant of any description.

By order of the Right Honourable the Governor General in Council.

Fort St. George, May 25, 1799.

In addition to the Government advertisement published on the 25th May, 1799, prohibiting Europeans of every description from passing through the Company's dominions subject to this Presidency, without a regular passport—The Right Honourable the Governor in Council is hereby to give notice that from and after the 1st day of June next ensuing, any Europeans, of whatever rank, description, or country, who shall be discovered passing through the territories under this Presidency, beyond fifteen miles from Fort St. George, without being furnished with a regular passport, will be taken up, and confined until the pleasure of Government shall be known.

2d. The only exception which the Right Honourable the Governor in Council has been pleased to make to the foregoing Resolution, is in favour of officers commanding parties of His Majesty's, or the Honourable Company's troops.

3d. For the more strict execution of this order, notice is hereby further given, that a reward of ten pagodas will be paid to any person who shall take up and bring into the nearest garrison, any European deserter, or vagrant, of any description.

4th. The following are the officers by whom passports will be issued on application.

By the Public Secretary to the Government, to persons not military.

The Town Major, to military persons belonging to the garrison of Fort St. George.

The Adjutant General of the Army, to all other military persons leaving the Presidency.

The Residents at Hydrabad, Poonah, Mysore, and Travancore; the several Collectors of Revenue; the Commercial Residents residing at seaports, and officers commanding military stations.

Published by order of the Right Honourable the Governor in Council.

Fort St. George, May 15, 1803.

The Right Honourable the Governor in Council has been pleased to adopt the following modifications in the regulations which have been established with regard to the issue of passports.

It is directed that in future, all foreigners who arrive at Madras, do deliver their passports at the Police Office in person, and that no passports be issued to foreigners, except at the Police Office. All foreigners residing at any of the out-stations, or elsewhere, under the authority of the Government of Fort St. George, or who may hereafter arrive, shall without delay report, through the channel of the nearest Magistrate, Collector, or other local authority, their place of residence, occupation, period of arrival, and from whence they have last come, to the Police Office at Madras; and any person failing to comply with this notification, will on discovery be placed under personal restraint.

It will be the particular duty of Magistrates, Collectors, and other local authorities, where foreigners may reside, to explain to such persons this part of the regulation, and to see that the order is strictly enforced.

All passports, of whatever description, are in future to be translated into the Malabar, Hindoo, and Hindoostany languages.

Such parts of the existing passport regulations, as are not affected by the above rules, are to remain in full force.

Fort St. George, August 22, 1807.

GOVERNMENT PASSPORT ADVERTISEMENTS.

PAR. 1. Notice is hereby given that all foreigners, of whatever description, residing at this place, are required, within the period of fifteen days from this date, to deliver to the Superintendent of Madras Police, a report of their names, place of residence, occupation, and period of arrival at Madras, specifying also the place from whence they may have last come.

PAR. 2. It is intended that this order shall extend to all French subjects, whether from Europe or born in India, as well as to all other subjects of any foreign state; and any person failing to comply with this notification, will, on discovery, be liable to be placed under personal restraint.

PAR. 3. All foreigners who may arrive at this Presidency, are in future to report their names, designation, and place from whence they last came, within twenty-four hours after their arrival, at the Police Office, mentioning likewise their intended place of residence while at Madras.

Fort St. George, April 2, 1807.

The Honourable the Governor in Council has resolved that the following advertisement be published for general information; and all persons whom it may concern, are hereby enjoined to pay strict attention to the orders therein contained.

Notice is hereby given that all Europeans, English as well as Foreigners, not in His Majesty's or Honourable Company's service, residing at this place, are required within the period of fifteen days from this date, to deliver at the Madras Police Office, a report of their names, country, place of residence, occupation, period of arrival, specifying also the place from whence they may have last come, &c.

The above description of persons who may hereafter arrive at this Presidency, either by sea or land, are likewise directed to report their names, designation, occupation, &c. as above, within twenty-four hours after their arrival at the Madras Police Office; mentioning likewise their intended place of residence while at Madras.

The above description of persons at present residing at any of the out-stations, or elsewhere, under the authority of the Government of Fort St. George, or who may hereafter arrive, shall without delay forward a report in a prescribed form through the channel of the nearest Magistrate, Collector, or other local authority, to the Madras Police Office.

It is further directed, that on the departure of any of the above description of persons from their place of residence, to such place as they may proceed to, either from the Presidency, or from any of the out-stations, whether by sea or land, they shall by themselves, and through the channel of the nearest Magistrate, Collector, or other local authority, at all times report to the Madras Police Office.

In order to avoid any plea of ignorance by the above persons, of the existing orders and regulations of Government, the Honourable the Governor in Council directs that copies of this notification, as well as that of the advertisements of 24 April and 22d August, 1807, be prepared by the Superintendent of Police, and affixed in the most conspicuous places of public resort at this Presidency, for general information; and a certain number of these copies to be transmitted to all the Magistrates, Collectors, and other local authorities for the like purpose of being affixed in their respective zillahs and districts, where the above descriptions of persons may reside; and in the event of failure by the Superintendent of Police in transmitting the above copies, application to be made to him for that purpose.

It will be the particular duty of the Magistrates, Collectors, and other local authorities, where the above description of persons may at present reside, and may hereafter arrive, to explain to them this order, and to see it strictly carried into execution; and on their failing to comply with it, they shall, on discovery, be placed under personal restraint.

Madras Police Office, 9th August, 1809.

LIST OF MERCHANTS.

The following are the principal European houses of agency at this Presidency:

Adrian de Fries and Co.	Parry and Pugh.
Harington and Co.	Hunter and Hay.
Arbuthnot, De Monte, and Co.	S. H. Grieg.
Abbott and Maitland.	Knox and Collis.
Binny, Dennison, and Co.	Edward Dent.
Colt, Hart, and Weston.	Lys, Satur, and De Monte.

There are also a number of Portuguese, Armenian, and native merchants resident at Black Town.

GENERAL RATES OF COMMISSION.

I. On sale or purchase of goods of all denominations, except the following..... 5 per cent.
II. On the sale or purchase of bullion ..... 1 ditto.
III. On the purchase of goods, where the money arises from a sale of goods on which commission has already been charged ..... 2½ ditto.
IV. On goods consigned, and afterwards withdrawn, half commission, according to the kinds
V. On procuring freight, whether to Europe, India, or any other port ..... 5 ditto.
VI. On procuring loans of money ..... 1 ditto.
VII. On procuring money on Respondentia, payable in Europe, India, or elsewhere 2 ditto.
VIII. On Del Credere, or guaranteeing the responsibility of persons to whom goods are sold, on the amount sale..... 2 ditto.
IX. On debts, wherein a process at law or arbitration is necessary ..... 2½ ditto.
If recovered ..... 5 ditto.
X. On managing the affairs of an estate, for an executor or administrator, on the amount recovered ..... 5 ditto.
XI. On collecting money for house-rent ..... 2½ ditto.
XII. On procuring Company's bonds, certificates, &c. for money or salary due to a constituent ..... 1 ditto.
XIII. On receiving bonds for constituent's money lent out, or renewing them,
If at 12 months ..... 1 ditto.
6 months ..... ½ ditto.
3 months ..... ¼ ditto.
XIV. On exchanging bonds of one description for others..... 1 ditto.
XV. On public or private securities, jewels or other valuables lodged, and afterwards withdrawn before the amount is realized ..... Half commission.
XVI. On disbursements for vessels when no commission is drawn on freight or cargo 2½ per cent.
XVII. On the sale or purchase of ships or vessels, houses or lands ..... 2½ ditto.
XVIII. On effecting remittances by bills of exchange..... 1 ditto.
XIX. On the sale or negotiation of bills..... 1 ditto.
XX. On guaranteeing bills or bonds by indorsement or otherwise ..... 2½ ditto.
XXI. On becoming security to Government, or individuals, for contracts or agreements, on the amount of the penalty to which they are liable ..... 5 ditto.

XXII. On recovering money from Underwriters ..... 1 per cent.
XXIII. On purchase or sale of the Company's or Nabob's paper ..... 1 ditto.
XXIV. On the sale of goods by public outcry, on net proceeds ..... 2½ ditto.
XXV. On shipping goods to Europe, China, or any part of India, on invoice..... 2½ ditto.
XXVI. On making insurances on the amount insured ..... 1 ditto.
XXVII. On recovering of bonds or bills for persons returned to Europe, past due at the time of their departure..... 2 ditto.
XXVIII. On procuring passengers on the homeward-bound Indiamen, on the amount received for passage ..... 5 ditto.
XXIX. On goods, treasure, &c. consigned, to forward to some other place ..... Half commission.
XXX. On attending the delivery of contract goods of any denomination..... 1 ditto.
XXXI. On the proceeds of goods sold by retail..... 10 ditto.
XXXII. On executing orders for the provision of goods out of Madras, on the amount of invoice, exclusive of charges of merchandise ..... 2½ ditto.
XXXIII. On making up Madras goods, and advancing the cash, and taking all risks 10 ditto.
XXXIV. On disbursing money on a credit for Europe, for which bills are to be received in payment, and where no commission has been charged on the purchase of goods in part of that credit, to be provided for in the exchange of the bills, but not to exceed the current rate..... 2½ per cent.
XXXV. On coral, bullion, and jewels, as well as Respondentia bonds and bills of exchange remitted from Europe, purposely to be invested in diamonds ..... 5 ditto.
N. B. Commission to be charged on their sales and original amount. The net residue to be invested in diamonds, without any further charge of commission; or should it be returned in any other manner, no further commission is to be charged.
XXXVI. On purchase of diamonds with money, on which no previous charge of commission has been made ..... 5 ditto.
XXXVII. On coral, jewels, or money withdrawn by the consignees before they are sold, or invested in diamonds..... 2 ditto.
XXXVIII. On the receipt of all monies not arising from the proceeds of goods on which commission has been already charged ..... 1 ditto.
XXXIX. Where the Dr. side of the account exceeds the Cr. side by advances made, the Agent to have the option of charging his commission upon the total of either 1 ditto.
XL. When a balance of account due by a constituent, is brought forward from an account of the preceding year, and not paid in the course of the succeeding one, commission to be charged thereon, or upon the residue unpaid. The Agent in the latter case to have the option of charging his commission upon that residue, or upon the sums received towards the discharge of the original balance due at the commencement of the year..... 1 ditto.

MERCHANT VESSELS.

The merchant vessels belonging to Madras are in general small; not above four are of the burthen of 800 tons. Several of the smaller ones have been built at Coringa and Rangoon, and the others at Bombay, Bengal, and Pegu. This coast being without a secure port for shipping, they proceed to Bengal during the boisterous season.

COMPANY'S IMPORTS FROM EUROPE.

An account shewing the invoice amount of all goods, stores, and bullion imported into Madras by the East India Company from 1792-3 to 1808-9 inclusive; likewise an account of the sums received at Madras for sales of import goods and stores during the same period; also the value of import goods remaining in the warehouses at the end of each year.

Years.	AMOUNT EXPORTED:				Sums received for Sales.	Amount of Goods on Hand.
	Woollens.	Other goods.	Bullion.	Total.		
	£	£	£	£	£	£
1792-3	18,476	55,273	——	73,749	97,754	71,370
1793-4	18,544	95,512	——	114,056	51,874	58,031
1794-5	19,669	120,138	——	139,807	123,685	26,605
1795-6	37,457	164,020	——	201,477	93,911	74,586
1796-7	39,286	135,257	——	174,543	83,551	85,406
1797-8	20,732	94,592	159,777	275,121	158,270	166,920
1798-9	5,532	86,754	101,015	193,301	125,311	139,067
1799-0	38,640	124,993	20,742	184,377	224,791	28,295
1800-1	53,678	90,169	206,793	350,640	85,749	24,348
1801-2	108,660	130,270	125,285	384,215	56,975	81,090
1802-3	113,322	170,767	30,250	314,339	59,656	224,253
1803-4	49,267	111,136	209,296	369,699	151,609	309,848
1804-5	46,940	121,554	402,945	571,439	101,504	343,501
1805-6	25,304	117,030	——	142,363	111,350	355,539
1806-7	23,708	215,222	——	238,930	102,122	337,245
1807-8	12,810	195,844	——	208,654	107,760	373,647
1808-9	14,425	153,993	——	168,418	122,959	373,090
Total.	646,470	2,202,555	1,256,103	4,105,128	1,858,831	——

Of the Company's imports, a part consists of woollens, which are of the following sorts:

Broad cloth, fine and superfine	Embossed cloths.	Broad cloth, double colours.
Ladies' cloth.	Ditto long ells.	Blankets.
Seraglio ratteens.	Welch flannels.	Woollen caps.
Cassimeres.	Cambletts.	Worleys.
Royal embossed flannels.	Templars.	Shalloons.
Perpetuanos, fine and coarse.	Velvets.	Soldiers' caps.

Of the staple commodities, there were imported in the season 1801-2, the under-mentioned quantities, viz.

Lead	£2,570	Naval and garrison stores	£63,070
Iron	3,525	Pitch, tar, deals, &c.	8,290
Copper	42,785	Sundries	30,230

By the foregoing statement it appears that the invoice amount of the goods imported into Madras, including a charge of 10 per cent. added to the prime cost, to cover contingent expences, such as freight, insurance, interest of money, &c. in 17 years, 1792-3 to 1808-9 inclusive, was £2,849,025

That the sum received for goods sold during the same period, was £1,858,831
That there remained in the warehouses in 1808-9 at the invoice amount 373,090
That there were lost in various ships during the 17 years, about 40,000
2,271,921

Leaving a deficiency in the 17 years, 1792-3 to 1809 inclusive, of £577,104

COMPANY'S EXPORTS TO EUROPE.

The following is an account of the prime cost of goods exported from Madras to Europe by the East India Company, with the commercial charges thereon, from the years 1792-3 to 1808-9 inclusive, made up in Bengal current rupees.

Years.	Prime Cost.	Commercial Charges.	Total.
	Current Rupees.	Current Rupees.	Current Rupees.
1792-3	32,44,939	4,36,777	36,81,716
1793-4	26,27,150	5,44,582	31,71,732
1794-5	62,87,871	8,37,669	71,25,540
1795-6	25,06,938	9,13,215	37,20,153
1796-7	81,69,082	4,75,686	86,44,768
1797-8	41,93,279	5,45,700	47,38,979
1798-9	34,37,748	5,31,016	39,68,764
1799-0	72,36,390	8,69,678	81,06,068
1800-1	50,25,510	5,05,482	55,30,992
1801-2	26,89,370	4,50,147	31,39,517
1802-3	39,13,591	5,09,740	44,23,340
1803-4	39,41,250	5,79,942	45,21,192
1804-5	64,47,632	9,57,334	74,04,966
1805-6	53,06,703	7,32,538	60,39,241
1806-7	39,41,373	9,08,144	48,49,517
1807-8	53,41,638	11,06,543	64,48,181
1808-9	——	10,85,186	10,85,186
Total.	746,10,464	119,89,388	865,99,852

The Company's staple article of export is piece-goods. Sugar and saltpetre are sent from Bengal as dead weight for such of the Company's ships as take in their cargoes at Madras; but as few articles of trade are procurable here, the homeward-bound Bengal ships reserve sufficient tonnage for such piece-goods as may be destined for Europe from this Presidency.

The commercial charges comprise the salaries and allowances of the Board of Trade, of a description strictly commercial, with those of the factories where the investments are provided; and also the charge of the import warehouse, and the departments where the goods imported from England, are deposited and sold.

From the foregoing statements, it appears that the value of goods and stores imported into Madras from England by the East India Company, in the years 1792 to 1808-9 inclusive was	£2,849,025
Value of goods exported from Madras to England during the same period was, current rupees 865,99,852, at 2s. per rupee	8,659,985
Exports exceed the imports	5,810,960
Treasure imported into Madras from England during the same period	1,256,103
Balance in *favour* of Madras and its dependencies in 17 years	£7,067,063

RECAPITULATION OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The following is an abstract of the merchandise and treasure imported into, and exported from Madras and its dependencies, by individuals and the Honourable East India Company in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive.

FROM WHENCE.	IMPORTS.			EXPORTS.		
	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
Company from London...	79,54,232	51,39,928	130,94,160	217,90,600	——	217,90,600
Individuals from London	57,40,025	34,26,329	91,66,354	63,38,540	992	63,39,532
Foreign Europe	20,34,545	37,47,510	57,82,055	4,03,228	——	4,03,228
United States of America	9,09,062	41,12,131	50,21,193	30,44,242	21,668	30,65,910
British Asia.....	487,40,860	88,98,539	576,39,399	401,70,156	29,03,008	430,73,164
Foreign Asia	108,84,953	125,06,485	233,91,438	220,85,999	6,46,739	227,32,738
Total.... Sicca Rupees	762,63,677	378,30,922	1140,94,599	938,32,765	35,72,407	974,05,172

From the preceding accounts of the commerce carried on at this Presidency by the East India Company and individuals, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive, it appears —

I. That the value of merchandise imported by the East India Company from London during the above period of five years, is nearly four times that of Foreign Europe, and nearly nine times that of the United States of America, and that the amount of treasure imported by them is about three-fifths that of merchandise.

II. That the value of merchandise imported by individuals from London during the above period is more than double that of Foreign Europe, and upwards of six times that of the United States of America, and that the amount of treasure imported by them is nearly two-thirds that of merchandise.

III. That the value of merchandise imported by the East India Company is about one-third more than that of individuals, and the amount of treasure, one half more than that of individuals.

IV. That the value of merchandise imported from London by the East India Company and individuals is near five times that of all other parts of Europe and the United States of America together, and that the amount of treasure imported from London is about one-tenth more than that of Foreign Europe and the United States of America together.

V. That the value of merchandise imported into Madras from the British territories in India, and from various other parts of India, under the head of Foreign Asia, which is denominated the Country trade, from being carried on in Indian ships and with Indian capital, is above seven times that of the East India Company, above ten times that of individuals, and twenty times that of Foreign Europe and the United States of America together; and that the treasure imported is about one-fourth more than that of all other parts.

VI. That the value of merchandise exported by the East India Company to London, is upwards of three times that of individuals, nearly fifty times that of Foreign Europe, and about seven times that of the United States of America.

VII. That the value of merchandise exported to London by the East India Company and individuals, is eight times that of all other parts of Europe and the United States of America together.

VIII. That the value of merchandise exported to various parts of the British territories in India and Foreign Asia is nearly double that of London, all other parts of Europe and the United States of America together, and that it withdraws near one-tenth of the treasure imported; the greater part of which is taken to other parts of the British dominions.

REVENUES AND DISBURSEMENTS.

The following is an account of the Revenues of the East India Company at the Presidency of Madras; likewise of the charges and disbursements (exclusive of commercial charges), the interest payable on the debt, the deficiency in the revenue, and the amount of the debts in each year, 1792-3 to 1808-9 inclusive.

Years.	Revenues.	Charges.	Interest on Debt.	Total of Charges and Interest.	Deficiency in Revenue.	Debt.
	£.	£	£.	£.	£.	£.
1792-3	2,476,312	2,140,305	82,573	2,222,878	Excess 253,434	1,095,189
1793-4	2,110,089	1,925,407	46,727	1,972,224	Excess 137,865	569,049
1794-5	1,775,782	1,871,525	8,807	1,880,332	104,550	495,078
1795-6	1,894,304	2,103,902	15,294	2,119,196	224,892	717,666
1796-7	1,996,328	2,411,960	37,040	2,449,000	452,672	2,040,109
1797-8	1,938,950	2,517,774	147,458	2,665,232	726,282	2,241,191
1798-9	2,123,831	3,281,606	160,488	3,442,094	1,318,263	2,398,958
1799-0	2,822,536	3,065,880	233,667	3,319,547	479,011	2,603,766
1800-1	3,540,268	4,405,558	208,829	4,614,387	1,074,119	3,129,908
1801-2	4,729,609	5,085,215	262,590	5,347,805	618,196	3,822,067
1802-3	4,724,904	4,831,158	286,611	5,117,769	392,865	4,414,487
1803-4	4,651,744	5,994,131	312,153	6,306,284	1,654,540	4,745,403
1804-5	4,897,140	5,991,746	320,867	6,312,613	1,415,473	5,462,001
1805-6	5,014,493	5,385,640	342,524	5,728,164	713,671	6,384,986
1806-7	4,602,721	5,269,700	473,129	5,742,829	1,140,108	6,807,679
1807-8	4,927,519	5,193,673	523,555	5,717,228	789,709	7,515,243
1808-9	4,968,321	4,935,743	495,408	5,431,151	462,830	7,059,679

The following are the sources from whence the revenues proceeded in the year 1808-9, and the particulars which constituted the charges in that year:

REVENUES.		CHARGES.	
Post-office	£16,806	Post-office	£19,926
Customs	152,938	Revenues and Customs	333,024
Carnatic	1,016,679	Carnatic	333,613
Tanjore	431,405	Tanjore	130,685
Mysore	1,540,228	Mysore	208,519
Nizam	681,807	Nizam	77,551
Dutch Settlements	2,727	Dutch Settlements	9,336
Travancore	6,504	Civil and Judicial	493,548
Land	1,057,628	Military	3,143,575
Farms and Licences	61,599	Buildings and Fortifications	185,966
Total of Revenues in 1808-9	£4,968,321	Total of Charges in 1808-9	£4,935,743

From the foregoing statement it appears that the revenues of this Presidency are inadequate to the expences, and that in the period of 17 years, 1792-3 to 1808-9 inclusive, the disbursements have exceeded the revenues in the sum of £11,193,882

In the ten years previous to the above period, viz. 1782-3 to 1791-2 inclusive, the expences exceeded the revenues 83,71,527 Star pagodas, which at 8s. sterling is 3,348,610

Forming a deficiency in 27 years of £14,542,492

COMPANY'S ASSETS.

The following is an account of the assets belonging to the East India Company at the Presidency of Madras, on the 30th of April in each year, from 1792 to 1808 inclusive, specifying the particulars of which they consisted.

Years.	Cash and Bills.	Stores.	Debts, including advances for Invest.	Export Goods.	Import Goods.	Salt, Grain, and Cattle.	Total.
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1792	569,994	349,804	2,296,915	96,814	128,324	——	3,441,851
1793	754,321	426,543	3,030,086	78,949	75,830	——	4,365,729
1794	1,062,224	482,535	2,849,170	215,969	61,658	——	4,671,556
1795	655,728	595,657	2,817,506	96,735	28,268	——	4,193,894
1796	532,419	612,399	3,040,118	298,967	79,247	——	4,563,150
1797	649,718	586,175	3,331,675	276,950	90,743	227,886	5,163,147
1798	415,121	733,995	3,384,513	215,817	177,352	133,008	5,059,806
1799	703,541	513,210	3,365,174	311,259	147,759	227,682	5,268,625
1800	1,230,193	707,512	2,542,445	132,043	29,968	283,718	5,925,879
1801	1,529,376	639,459	3,709,554	151,972	36,495	367,162	6,434,018
1802	1,952,341	628,456	3,942,788	93,144	86,162	399,449	7,102,340
1803	2,027,631	734,472	3,705,091	126,977	238,282	454,791	7,287,244
1804	1,900,177	948,129	3,586,351	410,368	329,214	336,673	7,511,112
1805	1,993,680	875,110	4,006,127	460,398	364,969	275,402	7,975,686
1806	2,817,767	702,363	4,202,056	167,825	377,548	549,715	8,877,274
1807	2,614,202	886,154	4,243,198	351,150	358,323	357,492	8,810,519
1808	3,112,430	10,86,236	4,383,432	123,754	399,125	525,837	9,630,814
1809	3,489,498	838,157	3,736,354	103,606	396,408	619,659	9,183,682

From the foregoing statement it appears, that the debt owing by the East India Company in 1809 at this Presidency, amounted to £7,059,679

That the amount of assets as above, was at the same period 9,183,682

The assets at this Presidency exceed the debts £2,124,003

The Company are possessed of property to a considerable amount at this Presidency, which, from not being considered as immediately available, is not inserted in the above account. This property consists of plate, household furniture, guns on the ramparts, arms, and some descriptions of military stores. Buildings might also be mentioned; but the cost of them is supposed to have been included in the charges. These several articles, with the doubtful debts of the Company, are carried into an account termed *dead stock*. In many respects the articles so described are nevertheless to be considered as real property; and insofar as they have not been included in the charges, in like manner with the buildings and fortifications, can only have been procured by the advance of funds, either in England or India.

By the Company's annual accounts drawn up to March, 1810, it appears that the sum expended on buildings and fortifications for the acquisition and maintenance of their possessions, and the estimated value of other articles of dead stock at this Presidency, is as follows:

Buildings and fortifications £1,840,682

Plate, furniture, plantations, farms, vessels, stores, &c. 447,798

Forming a total of £2,288,480

GOVERNMENT SECURITIES

Are issued on paper negotiable to order, and transferrable by simple endorsement.

8 per Cent. Decennial Loan of 1799-1800.

The interest payable annually in money, or by bills at 8s. per pagoda, and fifteen months after date.

The principal of this loan is payable in ten years from the dates of subscription, or optionally with Government in eleven or twelve years, either in money at Madras, or by bills on the Honourable Court of Directors, at eight shillings per pagoda, and fifteen months after date; the Court in this case having the option to postpone the payment for two years further, they allowing interest thereon at five per cent. per annum, payable half yearly.

8 per Cent. Loan

advertised on the 5th May, 1809, and closed 11th September, 1809.

Promissory notes issued, interest payable half-yearly, viz. on the 1st May and 1st November, from year to year. Bills for the interest, provided it amounts to the sum of £50 sterling at the least, may be obtained on the Court of Directors, at the exchange of 8s. 6d. per Star pagoda, payable six months after sight. The principal of this loan payable in cash at Fort St. George.

The outstanding 10 and 8 per cent. securities of this Government were received in subscription to this loan at par, and subscriptions in cash at a discount of four per cent.

The holders of the promissory notes in this loan are at liberty to exchange those securities for a certificate entitling them to the promissory notes of the Bengal Government, of the same tenor in every respect, at the exchange of 360 Arcot rupees per 100 Star pagodas.

Subscribers to this loan are entitled, on application to the Governor in Council, to have their promissory notes, provided they amount to the principal sum of 3,000 Star pagodas, deposited in charge of the Sub-Treasurer, for the time being, at the risk, and under the security of the Company, an acknowledgment being granted for the promissory notes so deposited. The interest will be remitted as it shall become due by bills, on the terms above mentioned, which will be forwarded by the Deputy Accountant-General to the proprietor, his agent, or assigns, according to the instructions which may be given for that purpose.

All applications to the Governor in Council to have promissory notes deposited in the treasury, must be accompanied by the notes so to be deposited; and directions must be written in the following terms, on the face and across the lines of each note, and be attested by the signature of the proprietor, or his constituted attorney or attornies.

"The interest accruing half yearly on this promissory note, is to be remitted (unless it shall be hereafter directed to the contrary) by bills to be drawn on the Honourable Court of Directors, pursuant to the tenor of this promissory note, and the other conditions of this loan published in the Government Gazette of the payable to and be forwarded to ; but this promissory note shall not be pledged, sold, or in any manner negotiated, or delivered up to any person whomsoever; nor are these directions with respect to the mode of payment of the interest, to be in any manner altered, except on application to the Governor in Council, to be made by myself, my executors, or administrators, or under the authority of a special power of attorney, specifying the number, date, and amount of this promissory note, to be executed by me or them for that purpose."

COMPANY'S ARMY.

The following is an account of the number of persons in the Company's military employ on this establishment, as it stood on the 30th of April, 1807; since which period no material alteration has taken place in the number of regiments, except in those of His Majesty.

Europeans.

1 Lieutenant-General.	3 Deputy Commissaries of Ordnance.
13 Colonels.	51 Conductors of Ordnance.
56 Lieutenant-Colonels.	4 Medical Board.
62 Majors.	8 Superintending Surgeons.
262 Captains.	68 Surgeons.
46 Captain-Lieutenants.	82 Assistant Surgeons.
702 Lieutenants.	20 Sub-Assistant Surgeons.
208 Cornets, Fireworkers, and Ensigns.	926 Serjeants.
16 Paymasters.	649 Corporals.
23 Quarter-masters.	353 Drummers and Fifers.
5 Military Chaplains.	9312 Privates.

Natives.

969 Subadars.	114 Serangs.
860 Jemautdars.	213 First Tindals.
3894 Havildars.	183 Second Tindals.
3247 Naigues.	4746 Lascars.
1115 Trumpeters, Drummers, and Fifers.	1096 Puckallies.
52,108 Privates.	130 Native Dressers.
3,417 Recruits.	6505 Horse-keepers and grass-cutters.
67 Farriers.	1362 Artificers and Cunicoplies.

Effective Strength in Rank and File according to the Returns.

Europeans	2 regiments of His Majesty's dragoons	1,713	
	8 ditto infantry	7,145	
			8,858
	2 battalions of the Company's artillery	1,155	
	1 half squadron ditto horse artillery	96	
	1 Madras European regiment	662	
	Supernumeraries	20	
			1,933
	Total of Europeans		10,791
Natives	8 regiments of cavalry	3,548	
	1 half squadron of horse artillery	71	
	Artillery Golandauze	162	
	42 Companies of Artillery Lascars	1,848	
	24 Regiments of Infantry	39,057	
	2 Battalions of Pioneers	1,448	
	Supernumeraries and Recruits	6,664	
	Total of Natives		52,798
	Total of Europeans and Natives		63,589

The number of persons in the Company's military service at this Presidency in 1793 was 7,344 Europeans, and 23,483 natives, forming a total of 30,827; from which period to 1807, it increased to 63,589. The military expences have increased nearly in a threefold proportion, as will appear from the following statement of the amount, from the year 1792-3 to 1809-10 inclusive.

Years.	Charges.	Years.	Charges.	Years.	Charges.
	£		£		£
1792-3	1,412,597	1798-9	2,561,372	1804-5	4,072,144
1793-4	1,444,165	1799-0	2,261,151	1805-6	3,384,211
1794-5	1,508,197	1800-1	3,129,878	1806-7	3,125,764
1795-6	1,529,781	1801-2	3,571,236	1807-8	3,094,800
1796-7	1,796,377	1802-3	2,839,028	1808-9	3,143,575
1797-8	1,868,498	1803-4	4,026,028	1809-10	3,610,312

forming an amount, during that period, of three-fourths of the revenues of the Presidency.

The alterations and changes which took place in the constitution of the Company's army in 1796, are detailed at Bombay. The allowances of the Madras army having recently undergone some revision, the tables of pay, &c. are omitted.

Abstract of such Parts of the Act of the 33d of the King, as relate to Appointments in the Civil and Military Service of the East India Company.

Clause 56. Civil servants under Council to have precedency, according to the date of their respective appointments to the service.

Clause 57. All vacancies under Council to be filled up from among the servants belonging to the Presidency where such vacancy shall happen. No person under three years' residence in India, to hold an office of £500 per annum; or under six years, of £1500; nine years £3000, or twelve years £4000.

Clause 58. No person to hold two offices, the salaries of which amount to more than the prescribed sum.

Clause 60. No person to be appointed either a Writer or Cadet under the age of 15, or above 22. Persons who have been commissioned officers in His Majesty's service, may be appointed Cadets at 25 years of age.

Clause 70. No civil servant under the degree of a member of Council, to return to India after five years' absence, without the sanction of three parts in four of the Court of Directors, and three parts in four of a General Court of Proprietors; nor any military servant, under the rank of Commander in Chief, who shall have been absent five years, unless it shall be satisfactorily proved to the Directors and Board of Controul, that such absence was occasioned by sickness, or some inevitable cause.

And be it further enacted, that no person shall be capable of acting, or being appointed, or sent to India in the capacity of a Writer or Cadet, whose age shall be under fifteen years, or shall exceed twenty-two years, nor until the person proposed, or intended to be so appointed, shall have delivered to the said Court of Directors, a certificate of his age under the hand of the Minister of the parish in which he was baptized, or keeper of the register of baptism of such parish; and if no such register can be found, an affidavit of that circumstance shall be made by the party himself, with this information and belief, that his age is not under fifteen years, and doth not exceed twenty-two years. Provided nevertheless, that the said restriction shall not extend to prevent the said Court of Directors from appointing any person to be a Cadet, who shall have been for the space of one year at least a commissioned officer in His Majesty's service, or in the Militia, or Pencible Men, when embodied, and have been called into actual service, or from the Company of Cadets in the royal regiment of Artillery, and whose age shall not exceed twenty-five years.

STANDING ORDERS FOR SALUTES IN THE GARRISON.

ARTICLE I. The Nabob, when he comes into, and when he leaves the garrison ..... 19 guns.
II. The Governor ..... 19 ditto
III. The Vice Admiral commanding His Majesty's ships in India ..... 17 ditto.
IV. The Rear Admiral commanding His Majesty's ships in India ..... 15 ditto.
V. The Vice Admiral's ship on dropping anchor when she arrives, and on getting under weigh when she quits the roads ..... 17 ditto.
When a Rear Admiral commands ..... 15 ditto.
VI. A Lieutenant General commanding ..... 17 ditto.
VII. A Major General commanding ..... 15 ditto.
VIII. Second of the coast ..... 13 ditto.
IX. A Commodore ..... 13 ditto.
X. A Brigadier General ..... 13 ditto.
XI. A Colonel ..... 11 ditto.
XII. Every member of Council coming to, or going from the settlement on public service ..... 11 ditto.
XIII. Post Captains of His Majesty's ships ..... 11 ditto.
XIV. Masters and Commanders ..... 9 ditto.
XV. Flag officers and commanders to be saluted on first landing, and going off to sail, with the number of guns ordered for their respective ships.
XVI. If the above officers go off together, the salute due to the officer of the highest rank to be given; but if separately, agreeable to their station.
XVII. If any of His Majesty's ships are at anchor, it may be taken for granted they will return the salutes of the ships that pass by the roads; and if a ship arrives or departs from the roads, and salutes, the King's ships will of course answer it; but if they salute a second time, the fort returns it.
XVIII. Whilst an Admiral, Commodore, or senior Captain of any of His Majesty's ships are in the roads, no ship having a junior Captain, is to be saluted, as he cannot answer the salute; but the Captain is to have his proper salute on landing.
XIX. The Captains of His Majesty's ships are not to be saluted, and the same rule to be observed to their respective ships, more than once in six months, when the Admiral's or Commodore's ship is not in the roads.
XX. The salutes of any of the Honourable Company's ships on their arrival from, or departure for Europe, to be answered with ..... 9 ditto.
XXI. All foreign ships, whether with or without pendants, that salute the fort, to have an equal number of guns returned to them, except the Dutch, who are to have two less.
XXII. Country ships saluting the fort, to be returned with two guns less.
XXIII. No person, civil or military, entitled by his rank to a salute, is to be saluted, but when he comes into, or leaves the garrison, upon public service.

OTHER SALUTES ON PARTICULAR OCCASIONS.

XXIV. On Christmas-day and new year's day at sunrise ..... 21 ditto.
XXV. On the King's birth-day at sunrise, as many guns as His Majesty is years of age.

XXVI. On the King's birth-day, at twelve o'clock at noon ..... 21 guns.
XXVII. On the Queen's birth-day, ditto ..... 21 ditto.
XXVIII. On the Coronation-day, ditto ..... 21 ditto.
XXIX. On the King's birth-day, and new year's day, on drinking His Majesty's health 21 ditto.
XXX. The Queen and Royal Family ..... 21 ditto.
XXXI. Success to our arms both by sea and land ..... 19 ditto.
XXXII. The Company ..... 19 ditto.
XXXIII. Prosperity to the settlement ..... 19 ditto.
XXXIV. The Prince of Wales's birth-day, at noon ..... 21 ditto.
XXXV. The second of the coast, when sworn into Council ..... 13 ditto.
XXXVI. All other members of Council, ditto ..... 11 ditto.

REGULATIONS AFFECTING THE TRANSMISSION OF LETTERS BY THE MONTHLY MAIL TO BUSSORAH.

In consequence of the establishment by the Honourable the Governor in Council at Bombay, of a regular monthly communication with Great Britain, *viâ* Bussorah, the public are hereby informed that private letters will be received for transmission at the office of the Secretary to Government, under the following regulations.

I. That no letter shall exceed in length four inches, in breadth two inches, nor be sealed with wax.

II. That all letters shall be sent to the Secretary of Government with a note specifying the writer, and with the writer's name signed under the address, to be countersigned by the Secretary previous to deposit in the packet, as a warrant of permission.

III. The postage shall be paid on delivery of the letter, at the rate of 3½ pagodas a single letter, weighing one quarter of a rupee; for letters weighing half a rupee, 5½ pagodas; and for those weighing one rupee, 7 pagodas.—Letters for Bussorah, Bagdad, Aleppo, and Constantinople will also be received and transmitted to the Resident at Bussorah, under the foregoing regulations, in a separate box: those for the former place paying at the rates of letters from Bengal to Bombay: those for Bagdad and Aleppo, for single letters, 4 rupees, progressively as above to 8; and those for Constantinople 6 for single letters, progressively to 12, in addition to the common postage from hence to Bombay, the whole subject to such alteration as future information may render necessary.

IV. Two mails will be transmitted by each dispatch, one of which is intended to be dispatched *viâ* Aleppo, the other *viâ* Bagdad. Letters in duplicate will be placed in each packet, or if single, at the discretion of the Secretary.

V. No packets or letters are to be received by the commanders of the packets, but through the prescribed channel; nor will any, except through the same channel, be forwarded by the Resident at Bussorah.

VI. The mails will be dispatched from Bombay the first day of every month, and the first dispatch will be on the first of January, 1798.

Published by order of the Right Honourable the Governor in Council.

Fort St. George, December 28, 1797.

The Governor in Council at Bombay having thought fit to alter the period of dispatching the monthly overland packet, *viâ* Bussorah, to England, from the beginning to the middle of every month, has given notice that the alteration will have effect from that of June next ensuing, when the dispatch is to take place on the 15th instead of the 1st, and to be similarly continued in every succeeding month.

Further notice is therefore hereby given, that the private letters intended for the overland packet, will in future be dispatched on or about the last day of each month.

Published by order of the Right Honourable the Governor General in Council.

Fort St. George, May 21, 1799.

The Right Honourable the Governor in Council having, under orders from the Honourable the Court of Directors, adopted a new mode of preparing the overland mails from this Presidency; notice is hereby given, that in consequence of this arrangement, only one packet will in future be dispatched monthly from Fort St. George.—The overland mail will in future be dispatched for Bombay about the 5th or 6th of each month.

Published by order of the Right Honourable the Governor in Council.

Fort St. George, April 4, 1804.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Meat, poultry, fish, and fruit are in abundance here, but not of so good quality as at Calcutta. The following are the prices fixed in the bazar, but they vary according to circumstances.

Beef, stall fed..... Pagodas 0 4 40 per lb.	Red fowls ..... 6 to 8 fanams each.
Ditto 1st sort ..... 0 2 40 ditto.	Country ditto for sea stock 3 to 5 ditto.
Ditto 2d ditto ..... 0 1 20 ditto.	Ducks..... 8 to 9 ditto.
Veal sold by the joint, according to size and quality.	Wild geese, large.....10 to 12 ditto.
Mutton and kid, ditto.	Pigeons..... 4 to 6 ditto per pair.
Pork .....from 1,20 to 2,40 per lb.	Hares..... 4 to 5 fanams each.
Cock turkies.....1,33 to 2 pagodas each.	Partridges, snipes, teal, wild ducks, sand larks, &c.
Hen ditto.....1 to 1½ ditto.	in plenty, and at reasonable prices.
Geese .....1 to 1½ ditto.	Bread, 1st sort..... 1 fanam per loaf.
Capons ..... 15 to 20 fanams ditto.	Flour, ditto ..... 5 ditto per measure.

Of fruits, the following kinds are to be procured in the bazar.

Custard apples.	Mangoes.	Pomegranates.
Guavas.	Oranges.	Plantains of various sorts.
Limes.	Pine-apples.	Pumplenoses.

The fish to be purchased in the bazar, are of the following kinds, and most of them are excellent.

Pomfrets, black and white.	Cockup.	Mullet.
Soles.	Whitings.	Seer fish.
Prawns.	Oysters.	Crabs.

and a variety of other fish, which are little known to Europeans, or used by them.

The water here is very excellent; the watering place is about one mile and a half from the Fort, and ships are supplied by country boats at the rates before specified. Wood is rather scarce, and consequently dear.

Articles procurable at Madras, with Directions how to chuse them.

DIAMOND.

This gem has the greatest degree of transparency, is the hardest, most beautiful, and brilliant of all the precious stones, and has been known from the remotest ages. Diamonds are found only in the East Indies and in Brazil, and are distinguished by jewellers into oriental and occidental; the finest and hardest being always termed oriental, whether they are produced in the East Indies, or not.

Diamonds, when in their rough state, are either in the form of roundish pebbles, with shining surfaces, or of octoedral crystals; but though they generally appear in the latter form, yet their crystals are often irregular; they are lamellated, consisting of very thin plates, like those of tale, but very closely united, the direction of which must be ascertained by the lapidaries before they can work them properly. They are usually covered with a thin crust which renders them semi-transparent; but when this is removed, they are transparent.

The principal diamond mines in India are that of Raolconda in the Carnatic; that of Gani, or Coulour, also in the Carnatic; that of Soumelpour, or Goual, in Bengal; and that of Succadana in the Island of Borneo.

These gems are generally imported from Madras in their rough state, in small parcels called bulses, neatly secured in muslin, and sealed by the merchant, and are generally sold in Europe by the invoice, that is, are bought before they are opened, it being always found they contain the value for which they were sold in India, and the purchaser gives the importer such an advance on the invoice as the state of the market warrants. The bulses contain stones of various shapes and sizes.

The chief things to be observed in purchasing rough diamonds are, 1st. The colour. 2d. The cleanness. 3d. The shape.

1. Colour.—The colour should be perfectly crystalline, resembling a drop of clear spring water, in the middle of which you will perceive a strong light playing with a great deal of spirit. If the coat be smooth and bright, with a little tincture of green in it, it is not the worse, and seldom proves bad; but if there is a mixture of yellow with green, then beware of it—it is a soft greasy stone, and will prove bad.

If the stone has a rough coat, that you can hardly see through it, and the coat be white, and look as if it were rough by art, and clear of flaws or veins, and no blemish cast in the body of the stone (which may be discovered by holding it against the light), the stone will prove good.

It often happens that a stone shall appear of a reddish hue, on the outward coat, not unlike the colour of rusty iron; yet by looking through it against the light, you may observe the heart of the stone to be white (and if there be any black spots or flaws, or veins in it, they may be discovered by a true eye, although the coat of the stone be opaque), and such stones are generally good and clear.

If a diamond appears of a greenish bright coat, resembling a piece of green glass, inclining to black, it generally proves hard, and seldom bad; such stones have been known to have been of the first water, and seldom worse than the second; but if any tincture of yellow seem to be mixed with it, you may depend upon its being a very bad stone.

All stones of a milky coat, whether the coat be bright or dull, if never so little inclining to a blueish cast, are naturally soft, and in danger of being flawed in the cutting; and though they should have the good fortune to escape, yet they will prove dead and milky, and turn to no account.

All diamonds of cinnamon colour are dubious; but if of a bright coat, mixed with a little green, then they are certainly bad, and are accounted amongst the worst of colours.

You will meet with a great many diamonds of a rough cinnamon coloured coat, opaque: this sort is generally very hard, and when cut, contains a great deal of life and spirit: but the colour is very uncertain; it is sometimes white, sometimes brown, and sometimes a very fine yellow.

II. Cleanness.—Concerning the fouls and other imperfections that take from the value of the diamond, we must observe, all diaphanous stones are originally fluids, and spirituous distillations falling into proper cells of the earth, where they lie till they are ripened, and receive the hardness we generally find them of. Every drop forms an entire stone, contained in its proper bed, without coats. While this petrific juice, or the matter which grows in the stone, is in its original tender nature, it is liable to all the accidents we find in it, and by which it is so often damaged; for if some little particle of sand or earth fall into the tender matter, it is locked up in it, and becomes a foul, black spot; and as this is bigger or less, so it diminishes the value of the stone.

Flaws are occasioned by some accident, shake, or violence which the stone received whilst in its bed, or in digging it out, and this frequently occasions an open crack in the stone, sometimes from the outside to the centre, and sometimes in the body of the stone, which does not extend to the outside; but this is much the worst, and will require great judgment to know how far it does extend. It takes half from the value.

Holes are formed on the outside of the rough diamond, and must be occasioned by some hard particle of sand falling into the tender substance of the stones, which not being heavy enough to sink into the middle, remains on the outside thereof, like a black spot, and being picked off, leaves a round hole.

The next and greatest difficulty will be to avoid beamy stones, and this requires more skill and practice than any thing yet spoken of; yet time and opportunity will enable you to discover them. Indeed a great many stones are a little beamy in the roundest (by which is meant the edges), but it is not so very material, though it diminishes the life of the diamond. By beamy stones, are meant such as look fair to the eye, and yet are so full of veins to the centre, that no art or labour can polish them. These veins run through several parts of the stone, and sometimes through all; and when they appear on the outside, they shew themselves like protuberant excrescences, from whence run innumerable small veins, obliquely crossing one another, and shooting into the body of the stone. The stone itself will have a bright and shining coat, and the veins will look like very small pieces of polished steel rising upon the surface of the stone. This sort of stone will bear no polishing, and is scarcely worth a rupee per mangalin. Sometimes the knot of the veins will be in the centre; the fibres will shoot outward, and the small ends terminate in the coat of the diamond. This is more difficult to discover, and must be examined by a nice eye; yet you may be able here and there to observe a small protuberance, like the point of a needle lifting up a part of the coat of the stone: and though by a great deal of labour it should be polished, it will be a great charge, and scarcely pay for the cutting, and therefore it is to be esteemed as little better than the former. But if you are not very careful, they will throw one of these stones into a parcel, and oftentimes the largest.

III. Shape.—This consists of three articles—stones in four points, stones in two points, and flat stones.

Stones in four points consist in four equilateral triangles at top, and the same at bottom, being a perfect steragon: this is the most complete shape, and makes the best brilliants, and when sawed in four points, the best rose diamonds, which are esteemed more than others, whether shaped thus, or rough.

Stones in two points are when four of the triangular planes are broader than the other four. This will make a thinner brilliant, lose more in the cutting, and will not retain so much life. For roses, it must be sawed through two points, and it will make fine roses, but not so lively as the former.

Stones in the flat, are when the points are so depressed and confined, that you only see the traces where Nature would have polished them, had they not been confined; and therefore they are irregular and distorted. In cutting these stones, they do not regard the points, but make the flat way either roses or brilliants. These stones may be split rough in these shapes; they lose more in cutting than the others.

All Indian-cut stones are called lasks or lasques: they are in general ill-shaped, or irregular in their form; their substance or depth is ill-proportioned: some have more of the stone's substance at top than at bottom; the table, or face, is seldom in the centre of the stone; sometimes it is of an extravagant breadth,

and sometimes too small, and none of them are properly polished. The chief thing regarded is, that of saving the size and weight of the stones. These stones are always new wrought when brought to Europe. Such as have the least stain, speck, flaw, or appearance of veins should be rejected.

For the valuation of diamonds of all weights, Mr. Jefferies lays down the following rule. He first supposes the value of the rough diamond to be settled at £2 per carat at a medium; then to find the value of diamonds of greater weights, multiply the square of their weight by two, and the product is the value required. For instance, to find the value of a rough diamond of two carats, $2\times2=4$, the square of the weight, which multiplied by two, gives £8, the value of a rough diamond of two carats. For finding the value of manufactured diamonds, he supposes half their weight to be lost in manufacturing them; and therefore to find their value, multiply the square of double their weight by two, which will give their true value in pounds. Thus, to find the value of a wrought diamond of two carats, find the square of double the weight, that is $4\times4=16$, then $16\times2=32$. So that the true value of a wrought diamond of two carats is £32.

The largest diamond ever known in the world, is one belonging to the Queen of Portugal, which was found in Brazil; it is still uncut; it weighs 1,680 carats, and if valued according to the above-mentioned rule, this great gem must be worth £5,644,800 sterling.

The famous diamond which adorns the sceptre of the Emperor of Russia, under the eagle at the top of it, weighs 779 carats, and is worth £4,854,728, although it hardly cost £150,000. This diamond was one of the eyes of an idol in the island of Seringham in the Carnatic. A French grenadier who had deserted from their Indian service, contrived so as to become one of the priests of the idol, from which he had the opportunity to steal its eye; he escaped from thence to Madras. A Captain of a ship bought it for 20,000 rupees; afterwards a Jew gave about £18,000 for it; at last a Greek merchant offered it for sale at Amsterdam in 1766, and the Russian Prince Orloff made this acquisition for the Empress of Russia.

The next diamond is that of the Great Mogul, and is cut in rose; it weighs 279 carats, and is worth, according to the above rule, being cut, £622,728. Tavernier states, it weighed, when rough, 793 carats; if so, its loss by cutting was very trifling.

Another diamond of the Queen of Portugal, which weighs 215 carats, is very fine, and is worth at least 369,800 guineas.

The diamond which belonged to the Grand Duke of Tuscany, now to the Emperor of Germany, weighs 193½ carats, but it has somewhat of a citron hue; and it is worth at least 109,250 guineas.

Tavernier mentioned having seen a diamond at Golcondah, weighing 242$\frac{1}{16}$ carats, for which he offered 400,000 rupees, but could not procure it under 500,000, about £62,500.

The diamond called the Pitt, or Regent, weighs 136¾ carats, and is considered worth about 208,333 guineas, although it did not cost above half that value.

The diamond, called the Pigot, weighs 47¼ carats, and is an extremely fine one; it was disposed of by the Pigot family in 1800, by lottery, for £22,000; which exceeds its value, according to Jefferies's mode of calculation.

Diamonds may be imported duty free, saving the duty granted to the East India Company on diamonds imported from any place within the limits of their charter.

PIECE GOODS

Are manufactured of different dimensions and qualities, at various places subordinate to Madras, and are exported from thence to Europe, the Cape of Good Hope, the Persian and Arabian Gulfs, the Malay Coast, Manilla, and various other places to the eastward.

The following are the kinds usually imported into England, with the number of pieces to a ton.

Allejars	Pieces 800	Izarees	Pieces 800
Betellees	400	Long-cloth	160
Callawapores	800	Moorees	800
Chints, of all sorts	R 400	Salempores	400
Ginghams	800	Sastracundies	800

N. B. Where the letter R is set against pieces of 400 to the ton, it shews those goods are to be reduced, or brought to a standard of 16 yards long and 1 broad. For example:

1,000 pieces of 12 yards long and 1¼ broad, at 400 to the ton, make 844 pieces, or 2 tons 44 pieces.

The particular sorts of Madras piece-goods suitable to the various Indian markets are enumerated under the heads of the respective places.

Previous to the war, considerable quantities of Coast piece-goods were imported into France. In the year 1791 there were sold at L'Orient the under-mentioned:

130,000 pieces of long-cloth.
3,000 ditto Percaulas.
380 ditto Salempores.
37 ditto Izarees.
1,200 ditto Goudelour dimities.
12,000 ditto common Betellees.
2,000 ditto Betellees Tirnomalee.
11,000 ditto Tarnatannes.
1,500 ditto fine Oringal.
5,700 ditto Chavenis.
4,247 ditto handkerchiefs.
3,200 pieces demy blue long-cloth.
187 ditto Sastracundies.
1,510 ditto Pondicherry ginghams.
4,000 ditto Romals, 16 in a piece.
5,126 ditto Romals Percaulas.
10,000 ditto Sassergates, 8 in a piece.
60,000 ditto Ventepollams.
1,455 ditto superfine Madras.
936 ditto striped, or Doreas.
56 ditto Monepour cloth.

making in the whole 257,534 pieces, the sale value of which was £630,664 14s.

The following is a statement of the value of Coast piece-goods imported and sold on account of the East India Company, at their sales in the years 1771 to 1790 inclusive.

Years.	Pieces.	Sale Value.	Years.	Pieces.	Sale Value.
1771	114,710	£261,893	1781	95,868	£238,643
1772	273,766	523,094	1782	72,188	204,163
1773	134,789	305,533	1783	none.	none.
1774	207,086	644,563	1784	44,810	116,883
1775	181,950	583,765	1785	45,352	115,632
1776	209,338	515,557	1786	43,240	97,511
1777	224,183	492,926	1787	38,641	84,598
1778	296,182	422,213	1788	96,455	191,826
1779	74,676	203,186	1789	112,216	225,169
1780	107,130	257,626	1790	126,221	253,625

Since that period the accounts of Madras goods sold, are blended with those of Bengal and Bombay.

MOOTAPILLY

Is about eight leagues N. N. E. of Gondegam. The town is about half a mile inland, not discernible from the offing; but with the assistance of a glass, a pagoda is perceptible. There are some detached palmyra trees to the northward of the landing-place, and about a mile to the southward a thick grove of trees, with a clump on its southern part, higher than the rest. With the northern extremity of a piece of high land in one with a thick grove of trees, you are abreast the proper anchorage in 15° 42' North. Large ships lie about a mile from the shore, with Mootapilly pagoda bearing N. W. by N.

From Mootapilly to Point Divy is about twenty leagues; in this space the coast is low and woody, having several towns on it, the principal of which are Nizampatam and Pettapollee: the latter may be known by a grove of palmyra trees near it, and is in latitude about 15° 50' North.

NORTHERN CIRCARS

That portion of the British dominions on the Coromandel Coast commonly called the Northern Circars, from its relative situation to Fort St. George, is a narrow slip of maritime country, extending from 15° 30' to 20° North latitude, and from 79° to 85° East longitude. The sea bounds it to the east in a direct N. E. course along a coast 470 miles in length, from Mootapilly, near its southern extremity, to the town of Maloud in Orixa, on the borders of the Chilka Lake, its northern extremity.

The grand divisions of the whole territory are naturally and properly five, being so many portions of its length, principally marked by rivers running across from the hills on the west to the sea; but besides these, a sixth district has been formed from the maritime border of the four Southerly Circars, to serve as an appendage to, and secure the salt made, or customs collected at the ports of Nizampatam, on a southern outlet of the Kistna, and of Mausulipatam on one of its northern branches, as well as at their respective dependencies along the coast.

I. Guntoor, or Moortezanagur, the most southerly province, is of a circular form: the river Kistna forms the northern boundary of the Circar, and separates it from the province of Mustaphanagur. The boundaries to the west and south are the districts of Palnaud and Ongole; and on the east, Nizampatam with its dependencies, intervene every where between it and the sea, excepting a narrow communication with the small port of Mootapilly.

II. Condapilly, or Mustaphanagur.

III. Ellore. These are adjacent to each other, as well as to the Circar just described, in a N. E. direction, and occupy the whole space lying between the Kistna, and the districts of Mausulipatam towards the sea; and the River Godavery describes the limits of Ellore northerly.

IV. Rajahmundry, towards the south, is separated from Ellore in its greatest breadth by the Godavery. This river, after receiving many lesser ones, from its source among the Balagaut mountains near Bombay, and running an easterly course about 700 miles, divides itself into two great branches, 35 miles from the sea, within which is formed the Island of Nagur, a triangular space comprehending only 500 square miles, but of greater value in proportion to its extent, than perhaps any other spot in the east. The small river of Settiaveram running into the sea, describes its northern boundary with Chicacole.

V. Mausulipatam. This district forms the least of the grand divisions of the Circars. Nizampatam, formerly a separate jurisdiction on the south of the Kistna, extending along a coast of sixty miles from Point Divy, near the great mouth of that river to Mootapilly south, and about five in breadth on a medium to the territory of Guntoor, constitutes the southern portion of this division; and from the same headland, including the Island of Divy to Narsipore, on the southern arm of the Godavery, and from thence to Ingeram on its northern branch, just beyond the point formed by, and deriving its name from, this river, lie several pergunnahs detached from Condapilly, and some smaller seaports scattered on the shores of Ellore

and Rajahmundry, which together compose the northern subdivision, and extend along a coast of 105 miles, within 45 miles of the River Settiaveram, and boundary of Chicacole. Both these portions united, are immediately dependent on Masulipatam, which is the capital of these districts.

VI. Chicacole, the most northerly, and last in order of the grand divisions, is also subdivided into two districts: of which one, deriving its name from that province, is dependent on Vizagapatam; the other, called Ichapoor, is placed under Ganjam. The former lies between the rivers of Settiaveram on the south, and of Poondy on the north. From the cross hills approaching the sea near these extremities, it forms a kind of semicircular territory; of which the diameter along the coast extends 180 miles, and its greatest dimensions in land about one third of the same distance. The latter subdivision of this province is of a triangular figure, stretching its longest side about 80 miles on the shore from Poondy to Maloud, the southern frontier of Cuttack.

The Circars, being well watered by the numerous rivers, abound in grain, and may be considered the granary of the Carnatic during the N. monsoon, in like manner as Tanjore is reckoned during the S. W. monsoon. They produce also bay-salt, tobacco, (the latter from the vicinity of Masulipatam, known every where for superior excellence), and abundance of teak timber of the best sort, and largest sizes. The cocoa and palmyra form the principal materials for building the unwieldy vessels for the coasting trade, called donies, of various burthens from 60 to 100 tons each. The diamond mines of Guntoor and Condapilly in this province are not considered of any great importance.

In regard to manufactures, the staple produce of the country worked from cotton, is of two different sorts and fineness; plain long-cloth, so valuable at foreign markets, is chiefly wrought in the island of Nagur and its vicinity. It forms the groundwork of the best printed calicoes in Europe, and of those inimitably painted ones, called palempores, in the districts of Masulipatam. The coarser plain cloths made to the north and south of the Godavery, or coloured with the Chaya root, which grows in most perfection in the sands overflowed annually by the Kistna, are equally articles in demand abroad, or for interior consumption; but the muslins of Chicacole, the beautiful woollen carpets of Ellore, and silks of Ichapoor, wrought from the raw materials imported from Bengal and China, are rather objects of curiosity, and meriting encouragement, than considerable in quantity or benefit. But the facility, convenience, and cheapness with which ships of war, or of burthen, not exceeding 500 tons, have been, and might in greater number be, constructed in the ports of Coringa and Narsipore, two of the principal branches of the Godavery, are considerations of the utmost importance to a maritime state; nor should the extensive branch of ship-building now in use, though with so much imperfection, and improvidence, in supplying 50,000 tons in smaller craft for the coasting trade, be forgotten, in stating the useful arts which form the local proprietary interests of the country.

These several objects of natural or artificial produce, when united, form the grand resources of commerce, which may be classed under three different heads, viz.

I. The trade to Europe. This is confined entirely to the finer cotton manufactures exported by European nations who have establishments on this coast, or purchased by other foreign adventurers.

II. The trade to the neighbouring Indian ports, or coasting trade, carried on almost entirely with Madras, since the late prohibition of importing bay-salt into Bengal, consists either of grain, amounting annually to half a million of bags, or for the most part, in the coarser cloths proper for the eastern markets.

III. The third branch, or interior commerce, in salt and piece-goods of native productions, or copper and raw-silk, the latter chiefly for Bengal, leaves a balance of ten lacs of rupees, after deducting half the amount for returns of cotton and wheat, received in barter from the inland carriers, and consumed within the Circars.

The inhabitants of all these provinces, exclusive of a few thousand Mahometans, are wholly Hindoos, and are estimated at 2,500,000 of all denominations.

CHAPTER XX.

Coast from Madras to Bengal.

Pulicat—Armagon—Commerce of the Northern Division of the Carnatic with Madras—Gondegam—Mootapilly—Northern Circars; Description—Mausulipatam—Yanaon—Point Gordecare, or Godavery—Coringa—Jaggernautporam—Vizagapatam—Binlipotam—Ganjam—Mannickpatam—Jaggernaut Pagodas—Black Pagoda—Point Palmiras—Commerce of the Coast of Coromandel with Bengal and Bombay—Balasore—Pipley—Bengal—River Ganges—Burrampooter—Kedgeree—Diamond Harbour—Fulta—Barnagore—Serhampore—Bankibazar—Chandernagore—Chinsurah—Hughley—Bandel.

PULICAT

Is about seven leagues to the northward of Madras, in latitude 13° 34′ North, and longitude 80° 1′ East. This was a Dutch settlement, where they established themselves as early as 1609. The fort is called Gueldria; and on the capture of Negapatam by the English, the chief government of the Dutch settlements on the Coast of Coromandel was removed here. There is a shoal off Pulicat, which extends N. E. by N. and S. W. by S. Its north end lies S. E. by S. from the river. To enter Pulicat Roads from the southward, do not come under 13 fathoms till the flagstaff bears west, when you may stand in West, or W. by N. to bring it W. ¼ S. In this track there are at least 5½ fathoms, till you get within two miles of the flagstaff in the above direction, when you have seven or eight fathoms ooze.

The trade here in arrack, sugar, japan copper, spices, and other articles from Batavia, used to be very brisk; the returns were made in piece-goods of various sorts manufactured here, and in the adjacent places.

ARMAGON,

Or Duraspatam, is in latitude about 13° 58′ North, and about twelve leagues N. N. W. from Pulicat. In 1625 the English obtained a piece of ground from the Naig, or Chief of the district, and erected a factory here, which they fortified, and obtained permission to trade, on condition of paying one per cent. on goods imported, and three per cent. on exports. In consequence of the oppressions experienced by the factors at Mausulipatam from the Governor, they embarked the Company's property, abandoned the latter factory, and proceeded to Armagon, the 27th of September, 1628. In the following year Armagon is described to be defended by twelve pieces of cannon mounted round the factory, and by a guard of twenty-three factors and soldiers; it then became the principal English station on the Coromandel Coast, and though exposed to much opposition from the Dutch, and extortion by the Naig, it resisted both. On the acquisition of Madras, this place fell to decay.

COMMERCE WITH MADRAS.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into the Northern Division of the Carnatic from Madras, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from the Northern Division of the Carnatic during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS FROM MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	1,24,783	——	1,24,783
1803	14,216	——	14,216
1804	30,792	2,324	33,116
1805	23,412	1,859	25,271
1806	15,484	——	15,484
Total.	2,08,687	4,183	2,12,870

EXPORTS TO MADRAS.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	6,24,853	——	6,24,853
1803	5,29,842	——	5,29,842
1804	4,91,696	8,590	5,00,286
1805	5,69,340	41,279	6,10,619
1806	4,30,658	——	4,30,658
Total.	26,46,389	49,869	26,96,258

Articles of Import in 1805.

Grain	Sicca Rupees 9,742
Tobacco	3,442
Sundries	7,586
Imports re-exported	2,642
Treasure	1,859
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 25,271

Articles of Export in 1805.

Grain	Sicca Rupees 2,55,430
Piece-goods	1,22,460
Tobacco	77,729
Timber	17,371
Drugs	9,780
Cotton	7,495
Saltpetre	10,387
Bangle stone	4,444
Turmeric	4,479
Woollens	3,018
Sundries	46,747
Treasure	41,279
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 6,10,619

Value of merchandise imported into the Northern Division of the Carnatic from Madras, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees	2,08,687
Ditto exported from ditto		26,46,389
Exports exceed the imports		24,37,702
Treasure imported into the Northern Division of the Carnatic	4,183	
Ditto exported from ditto	49,869	
		45,686
Balance *in favour* of the Northern Division of the Carnatic	Sicca Rupees	23,92,016

GONDEGAM,

Or Great Ganjam, is in latitude 15° 20' North. The river is considered to bound the Coast of Coromandel to the northward, beyond which the Coast of Golcondah begins; but the appellation of Coromandel is often applied to the whole extent of coast from Cape Comorin to Balasore, as that of Malabar is to the whole extent of coast on the western side of the Peninsula.

COMMERCE WITH MADRAS.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into the Northern Circars from Madras, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from the Northern Circars to Madras during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO THE NORTHERN CIRCARS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	7,07,432	13,74,037	20,81,469
1803	5,39,948	2,71,487	8,31,435
1804	5,38,926	0,,278	6,01,204
1805	4,79,440	1,11,704	5,91,144
1806	4,70,798	21,281	4,92,079
Total.	27,56,544	18,40,787	45,97,331

EXPORTS FROM THE NORTHERN CIRCARS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	22,05,133	9,526	22,74,659
1803	20,73,782	8,028	20,81,810
1804	18,87,150	6,942	18,94,092
1805	24,95,214	65,350	25,60,564
1806	14,00,359	12,412	15,02,771
Total.	111,11,638	1,02,258	112,13,896

Articles of Import in 1805.

	Sicca Rupees
Grain	61,698
Fruits	5,552
Piece-goods	19,180
Dyes and drugs	15,575
Woollens	5,165
Tobacco	2,743
Timber	5,975
Naval stores	7,960
Sundries	22,747
Imports re-exported, viz.	
Liquors	1,14,671
Metals	93,122
Timber	14,372
Gums	7,628
Tea	4,554
Oils	9,500
Provisions	3,591
Stationery	2,117
Raw silk	2,713
Pepper	12,068
Naval stores	8,579
Hats	2,738
Sugar	4,540
Tin-ware	2,677
China-ware	2,055
Cutlery	1,053
Glass	1,577
Spice	2,303
Turmeric	2,677
Drugs	2,808
Sundries	40,142
Treasure	1,11,704
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 5,91,144

Articles of Export in 1805.

	Sicca Rupees
Grain	17,64,040
Piece-goods	5,39,146
Drugs	31,027
Beetle-nut	9,579
Fruits	12,119
Timber	15,384
Woollens	5,192
Ghee	10,334
Cocoa-nuts	10,198
Snuff and tobacco	9,785
Tobacco	1,897
Sundries	65,043
Treasure	65,350
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 25,60,564

Value of merchandise imported into the Northern Circars from Madras in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees	27,56,544
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto during the same period		111,11,638
Exports exceed the imports		83,55,094
Treasure imported into the Northern Circars from Madras	18,40,787	
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto	1,02,258	
		17,38,529
Balance *in favour* of the Northern Circars	Sicca Rupees	100,93,623

MAUSULIPATAM.

Point Divy in latitude 16° 10' North, and longitude 81° 13' East, forms the west side of the bay of Mausulipatam; the shore is very flat all round the bay. Ships in the fair season generally anchor abreast the town, in four or five fathoms, the flagstaff bearing west, distant four or five miles.

The fort and town of Mausulipatam are situated a considerable distance from each other. The fort stands a mile and a half from the sea-shore, on the edge of a sound, formed partly by an inlet of the sea, partly by drains from the circumjacent ground, and still more by a continued stream which the river Kistna sends off about 15 miles to the S. W. and which falls into the upper part of the sound, very near the fort. The sound has sometimes three fathoms, and at others only three feet water; and opposite to the fort, is five hundred yards in breadth. The south side of the fort extends about six hundred yards along the sound, and eight hundred from thence to the north, and its area as well as form, would differ very little from a parallelogram of these dimensions, if the eastern side did not lie in a re-entering angle, which, however, is a very obtuse one. The ground along the sea-shore, for two miles to the north and south of the inlet of the sound, is a collection of sand-hills, which extend about half a mile inland, when they cease on the borders of a morass, which surrounds the fort on every side for a considerable distance.

The town of Mausulipatam is situated a mile and a half to the N.W. of the fort, on a plot of ground rising above the morass, across which the communication between this ground and the fort is by a straight causeway, 2000 yards in length. The town is very extensive, and its ground on the farther side still to the N. W. is bounded by another morass, which stretches along it from S. W. to N. E., but is stopped by the sand-hills of the sea-shore, along which is the only access to the town on dry ground.

Mausulipatam is very populous: it is the capital of the district, and the principal fort and bulwark of all the Northern Circars. It was formerly the principal place on the Coast of Coromandel. The English early settled a factory here; but in consequence of the oppressions and extortions they experienced from the native Governors, they withdrew to Armagon in 1628. In 1630 the factory was re-established, and a phirmaund soon after obtained from the King of Golconda, allowing them liberty to trade in the other ports in his dominions, limiting the amount of duties to 500 pagodas per annum. In return the English obliged themselves to import Persian horses, and, as the phirmaund expresses it, "other rarities" into his dominions. The factory was withdrawn on the acquisition of Madras.

The French obtained possession of Mausulipatam about 1750. It was besieged by the English in 1759, invested on the 7th of March, and the approaches carried on till the 6th of April, when the town was bombarded, and many houses destroyed. Above 400 barrels of powder were expended, with shot and shells in proportion, when it was resolved to storm, which took place on the 7th: the English gained bastion after bastion, until they approached the gateway, and cut off the communication of the French from their detached ravelin. No quarter was given, and a terrible carnage ensued, until the French quitted their arms, and repaired to the arsenal. The whole garrison were made prisoners, consisting of

four hundred Europeans, and about two thousand native troops. In consequence of this success, the Soubah of the Decan on the 14th of May made the English a free gift of the circle of Mausulipatam with certain districts belonging thereto, of which they have ever since retained possession.

About 11 leagues E. by N. from Mausulipatam is Narsipore, a place of but little trade.

YANAON

Is situated at the confluence of the River Coringa with one of the principal branches of the Godavery river. The mouth of the latter is obstructed by sandbanks, and therefore cannot be entered without the assistance of an experienced pilot. The river is deep within the bar, and is navigable to a considerable distance, though little frequented by vessels; and is very broad and rapid at the town of Yanaon. This town, with the territory belonging to it, and a small island situated to the southward, forms a space about four miles square, and contains a population of about 6,000 persons. Here the French had a factory and a regular establishment, and it was the principal mart of their commerce in this part of the country. It contained six rich commercial houses, exclusive of the Resident. Here they made their contracts for white piece-goods. The sum laid out by them was estimated to amount, one year with another, to 20,00,000 rupees. Yanaon surrendered to the English in 1794.

POINT GORDEWARE,

Or Godavery, in latitude 16° 48′ North, and longitude 82° 17′ East, is a low narrow sandbank, several miles in extent, which is considered the point. Within which, about six miles W. by N. is an opening of one of the branches of Godavery River, commonly called Coringa River, on which stand the town and English factory of

CORINGA.

Coringa Bay is between the above point and Jaggernautporam, whose river's mouth lies about ten miles N. W. by N. from the point; the usual anchorage for country vessels is Jaggernautporam N. N. W. and the bar of Coringa S. W. by S.; on the bar there are thirteen or fourteen feet water. When over it, the leading mark up the river is, a small clump of trees about 120 yards from the starboard shore, kept a-head till you open the river on the starboard side. The town of Coringa is situated on the southern bank of the river. Large ships anchor in five fathoms, Jaggernautporam bearing N. W. by W., and Coringa flagstaff S. S. W. Up the river is the town of Ingeram, where the Company has a Chief, and where large quantities of piece-goods are manufactured.

Coringa Bay and River are capable of being of infinite service to the King's, Company's, and country ships, being the only place on the west coast of the Bay of Bengal, where a vessel above two hundred tons can be refitted, or stop her leaks during the S. W. monsoon. It is always during that monsoon so smooth in this bay, that a vessel may venture to take a large heel for that purpose, and if occasion required, could heave down. There are always a great number of caulkers and carpenters employed here all the year round, repairing and building country vessels. In case of necessity, several hundred of these artificers could be procured along the coast; there are also timber and several stores to be got. Wood and water are obtained with convenience and facility; and fresh provisions of all kinds, were it an established port, could be procured in great quantity. There are also a great number of decked country boats, called donies, which would be of infinite service to a squadron putting in here to refit. To all these advantages, add the vicinity of Coringa Bay to Pegu River, for the supply of large teak timber of all sorts, and other naval stores, not being more than ten days' sail from it in either monsoon; also the port of Rhio in the south part of the Straits of Malacca, from whence poon masts and spars are brought, with several other useful articles, which are obtained there, and likewise sent to the dock-yard at Bombay.

JAGGERNAUTPORAM

Is in latitude 16° 56' North, about seven miles to the northward of Coringa. This town is also called Cocanara. It is in a deep bay, and is known by a white fort, having a flagstaff. The anchorage is in 5½ fathoms, the flagstaff N. W. about two miles from the shore. About a mile to the eastward of the town is a river with a bar, navigable by boats at low water. You may land in the ship's boat, keeping the fort open with the mouth of the river, which you enter, and which goes a long way above the town. Ships and vessels are well built here, and cheap. A snow 65 feet keel, and 24 feet beam, carrying 9,000 Bengal maunds, costs from 4,000 to 5,000 rupees. Wood, water, and stock are obtained easily, and very reasonably; ten fine fowls for a rupee, and other articles in proportion.

VIZAGAPATAM

Is situated in latitude 17° 43' North, and longitude 83° 26' East. A river coming from the north, and turning short eastward to the sea, forms an arm of land, a mile and a half in length, and 600 yards in breadth. Nearly in the middle of this ground stands the fort, which is in a bad state. The town is about 300 yards to the northward of the fort, and there is a small village to the southward. The harbour is capable of admitting vessels of 300 tons.

Vizagapatam is distinguished by the headland called the Dolphin's Nose, which rises on the S.W. point of the road, but is better known by a high mountain plainly seen seven or eight leagues inland; whereas the Dolphin's Nose is obscured by the high land at the back of it. The road has been recently surveyed by order of the Madras Government, and the following extract published for general information:—

The safest and most convenient birth for large ships to anchor, is in nine fathoms; however the roadstead may be considered perfectly safe to begin north, in six, seven, and nine fathoms, where the serjeant's house, and the southern extremity of the huts, north of the flagstaff, are in one; and south, where the house and Dolphin's Nose bear West; the bottom being all over this tract perfectly clear of rocks up to the beach, and to the foot of the hill.

On the bar at the entrance of the river, there are eight or ten feet water, and sometimes more in the N. E. monsoon; but the sands are liable to shift. The surf is very considerable on the ebb tide; and as European boats are obliged to be used, for want of country boats, they should keep close to the Dolphin's Nose, otherwise they run a risk of being upset, especially if the tide is ebbing.

The English settled a factory at Vizagapatam in 1668, and in the following year it was surprised by the forces of the Mogul, the Chief and four factors killed, and the Company's stock and effects plundered: it was however soon afterwards re-established. In 1709 the factory was again engaged in war with the Nabob of Chicacole. The Chief of the factory had borrowed money from the Nabob, on the common real; but he dying, the succeeding Chief refused the Nabob payment: whereupon he applied to Fort St. George for redress, but not meeting with such speedy relief as he expected, he had recourse to arms: the Company, however, by compromising the matter, brought the war to a conclusion.

In 1757, the French, under M. Bussy, took Vizagapatam; all the Europeans, whether troops or inhabitants, became prisoners of war, but the Sepoys and natives were permitted to go where they pleased. The property of individuals was respected, but that of the Company seized. It was soon after retaken.

Large quantities of piece-goods are manufactured in this district, and the natives are very expert in works of ivory, similar to those manufactured at Canton, but inferior in workmanship.

BIMLIPATAM

Is situated about five leagues from Vizagapatam, in latitude 17° 53' North. The Dutch had formerly a factory here, for supplying themselves with piece-goods from the neighbouring villages. The anchorage

for shipping in the S. W. monsoon is abreast the river and village; and a little farther to the northward, in the other monsoon. Between Bimlipatam and Ganjam are the rivers of Chicacole and Calingapatam, places of but little trade, and seldom frequented.

GANJAM

Is situated in latitude 19° 22' North, and longitude 85° 10' East. The fort, which is small, but compact, stands on the southern side of a river, which is of considerable size. This place is much frequented, particularly by coasting vessels, carrying on a considerable trade, many of which can enter the river. Ships anchor abreast the fort, or river's entrance, in eight or nine fathoms, about two miles off shore.

MANNICKPATAM,

In latitude 19° 40' North, is about 11 leagues to the northward of Ganjam, and is situated on a branch of the Chilka Lake. Here is a small mud fort, but not strong. It is known by a small pagoda, encompassed with houses and other buildings, having near them some large trees. Grain is scarce here.

JAGGERNAUT PAGODAS

Are the most celebrated pagodas in India; the largest is in latitude 19° 48' North, and longitude 85° 52' East. Here is a large town, about two leagues from the sea-side, which is seen far off by the height of its buildings. At a distance the pagodas appear like a large ship under sail; but on approaching, there are three pagodas very near each other, the S. W. one exceeding high and round, with a spike and a large ball at top. The second, which almost joins the first, appears less round at the top; it has also a spike and ball, as has likewise the third, which is the least, and round, like the first. These three pagodas, which seem joined together, form a high and broad building. They are enclosed in a square wall made of enormous black stones; each side of the wall is 100 fathoms in extent, having four gates facing the four points of the compass. Besides these, there are many small ones, and numerous buildings for the reception of pilgrims, of which 100,000 are said annually to visit this venerated place, and are entertained here.

BLACK PAGODA

Is about five leagues E.N.E. from Jaggernaut, and at a distance resembles (like the former) a ship under sail; about a league to the westward of it, is another small pagoda, standing, like this, on even reddish ground, without trees. This circumstance is sufficient to distinguish the Black Pagoda from that of Jaggernaut. About five leagues E.N.E. from the Black Pagoda is the principal branch of the River Gonga, called also Cuttack, from a long town of that name situated at some distance inland.

POINT PALMIRAS

Is in latitude 20° 44' North, and longitude 87° 6' East. The Point is low, and covered with palm trees, having on each side of it a small river; that on the south side is navigable by small vessels. Ships seldom see the point in passing, unless in very clear weather, as there are several shoals near it, running a considerable distance into the sea, which render it unsafe approaching within four leagues.

About five miles N. W. of the Point is Kannaka River, which is wide at its entrance, and navigable for vessels drawing twelve or thirteen feet water, but it is necessary to employ a pilot. It is much frequented by the coasting vessels belonging to the natives, who carry rice and various articles of trade from hence to Madras and other parts of the coast, during the favourable monsoon.

Six leagues N.N.W. of the latter is Churinga River, situated in a bay affording good anchorage in the S.W. monsoon; but, being out of the track of ships bound to Bengal, is seldom visited.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into the Coast of Coromandel from Bengal, Bombay, and Surat, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from the Coast of Coromandel to Bengal, Bombay, and Surat during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO COROMANDEL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	25,14,706	11,48,232	36,62,938
1803	26,44,173	——	26,44,173
1804	27,28,197	——	27,28,197
1805	24,66,174	——	24,66,174
1806	48,21,028	4,400	48,25,428
Total.	151,74,278	11,52,632	163,26,910

EXPORTS FROM COROMANDEL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	11,09,032	50,700	11,59,732
1803	9,83,075	75,420	10,58,495
1804	10,74,558	1,101	10,75,659
1805	10,91,123	31,789	11,22,912
1806	11,66,245	3,86,130	15,52,375
Total.	54,24,033	5,45,140	59,69,173

Articles of Import in 1805.

Piece-goods..... Sicca Rupees	4,13,363
Sugar, sugar-candy, and jaggery	1,43,926
Raw silk	4,16,942
Grain	10,44,658
Rum.....	7,991
Opium.....	61,968
Saltpetre	4,373
Cotton.....	1,725
Horses.....	10,100
Ginger	26,509
Dates	8,070
Long pepper and root	39,181
Seeds	71,651
Canvas and gunnies.....	27,295
Carriages	15,510
Hemp, flax, and twine.....	7,492
Wax and tallow candles	10,415
Drugs	10,635
Cow-tails	6,298
Sundries	70,644
Imports re-exported, viz.	
Broad cloth.....	7,522
Pearls and diamonds	15,001
Tincal.....	6,400
Wines and liquors	2,895
Metals	4,486
Beads	4,537
Drugs	4,270
Sundries	22,317
Imports in 1805 .....Sicca Rupees	23,66,174

Articles of Export in 1805.

Brandy and Cherry Brandy...Sicca Rupees	37,399
Beetle-nut	17,588
Broad cloth.....	46,148
Copper and nails	1,37,536
Chanks	2,00,637
Piece-goods.....	2,22,385
Timber and plank.....	54,325
Benjamin	32,869
Teas	15,402
Sandal wood and oil	25,561
Red-wood.....	26,584
Metals.....	22,952
Spice.....	70,708
Red and white lead.....	17,604
Wine and liquors	21,133
Drugs	33,029
Naval stores	31,249
Nankeens	10,582
Sundries	67,132
Treasure	31,789
Exports in 1805 .....Sicca Rupees	11,22,912

Value of merchandise imported into the Coast of Coromandel from Bengal, Bombay, and Surat, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees	131,74,278
Merchandise exported from ditto to ditto		54,24,033
Imports exceed the exports		97,50,245
Treasure imported into the Coast of Coromandel from Bengal, Bombay, and Surat during the same period	11,52,632	
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto	5,45,140	
		6,07,492
Balance *against* the Coast of Coromandel in five years	Sicca Rupees	91,42,753

BALASORE.

The entrance of the river is in latitude about 21° 28′ North. Balasore was formerly a considerable town, but at present is only about a mile long, and half a mile broad in the widest part. It is built along the river Beree Bellaun, where the tide commonly rises eight feet, and serves to carry vessels up to the dry docks, of which there are many here: but the spring tides rise much higher. The stream is navigable only for vessels of 100 tons burthen; and these cannot get over the bar at the mouth of the river, except at high water spring tides.

The English first began to trade here about 1640. The Company's factory-house is a large building, and as irregularly constructed both without and within as can be conceived. The prospect from the top is beautiful. The French had a factory at a small village three miles to the eastward of the town. The Dutch had a factory near the English one, between which are two lofty pyramids, erected to the memory of two Dutch ladies. There is a Portuguese church, and a number of Portuguese and Armenian inhabitants.

By treaty with the Rajah of Berar, dated the 17th of December, 1803, the Province of Cuttack, including the port and district of Balasore, was ceded to the Company in perpetual sovereignty. This province connects the territory of Bengal with the Northern Circars, and is of the utmost importance, independently of its commercial and financial value. The revenue of Cuttack is stated at 17,00,000 rupees.

A considerable trade is carried on here by small country vessels, in rice, dall, and other grain, tobacco, wax, oil, and various piece-goods manufactured in the neighbourhood.

Boats from the Maldive Islands arrive in fleets of twenty or thirty, in the months of June and July, bringing with them the produce of their islands, consisting of coir, cocoa-nuts, cowries, salt fish, tortoise-shell, &c. and return in December, laden with

Broad cloth.	Hardware.	Silk goods.
Coarse cottons.	Looking-glasses.	Sugar.
Cutlery.	Rice.	Tobacco.

and other commodities, the produce of Europe, India, and China.

At Balasore, pilots are always ready to carry the shipping up the Hughley River. It sometimes happens that ships arriving in Balasore Roads, have to anchor, and send a boat on shore for a pilot; but a boat should not attempt to pass over the bar but at the last quarter flood, as in the first quarter the sea breaks very high on it. In the fine season the pilot vessels are generally met with as soon as Point Palmiras is doubled. Each nation has its own; nor is it proper to use them promiscuously, but give the preference to those of your own nation. So many serious accidents have happened to commanders who have trusted to strange pilots, that the greatest caution is required in the choice of them.

PIPLEY.

Is about six leagues E. by N. from the entrance of Balasore river. It is situated on the banks of a river, and is known by a pagoda to the westward, and a thicket of trees very near it. Pipley was once the mart of this country; but the waters washing away a great part of the town, at the same time that a dangerous bar was formed at the mouth of the river, the merchants removed to Balasore.

BENGAL.

The province of Bengal commences at Pipley River; it is intersected with two rivers, the Ganges and Burrampooter, they derive their sources from the mountains of Thibet, from whence they proceed in opposite directions, the Ganges seeking the plains of Hindostan by the west, and the Burrampooter by the east. The Ganges, after wandering about 800 miles through these mountainous regions from Hurdwar, in latitude 30° North, gushes through an opening in the mountains, and flows, during the remainder of its course, to the sea, which is about 1350 miles. In its course through the plains it receives eleven rivers, some of which are equal to the Rhine, and none smaller than the Thames, besides as many others of lesser note. The Ganges is, as may be supposed, very unequal in point of width, varying from three-quarters to 3 miles. About 500 miles from the sea, the channel is 30 feet deep, when at its lowest; and it continues this depth to the sea, where the sudden expansion of the stream deprives it of the force necessary to sweep away the banks of sand and mud thrown across it by the strong southerly winds; so that the principal branch of the Ganges cannot be entered by large vessels. About 300 miles from the sea, reckoning the windings of the river, commences the head of the Delta of the Ganges: the two westernmost branches, named the Cossimbuzar and Jellinghy rivers, unite, and form what is afterwards named the Hughley, or Hoogley, River, which is the port of Calcutta, and the only branch of the Ganges that is navigable by large ships: this branch has a much deeper outlet to the sea than the principal branch.

That part of the Delta bordering on the sea, is composed of a labyrinth of rivers and creeks, all of which are salt, except those that immediately communicate with the principal arm of the Ganges. This tract is known by the name of the Sunderbunds, and is completely enveloped in woods, and infested with tigers. Here salt, in quantities equal to the whole consumption of Bengal and its dependencies, is made, and transported with great facility; and here also is found an inexhaustible store of timber for boat-building. The breadth of the lower part of the Delta is upwards of 180 miles, to which, if we add that of the two branches of the river that bound it, we shall have about 200 for the distance which the Ganges expands its branches at its junction with the sea. There are two distinct passages through the Sunderbunds, one named the Southern or Sunderbund Passage; the other, the Baligot passage. The first is the farthest about, and leads through the deepest and widest rivers; it opens into the Calcutta river, through Channel Creek, about 65 miles below the town. The Baligot Passage opens into a lake on the east side of Calcutta, from whence, some years since, a small canal was cut, to join the lake with the river.

The bore, (which is known to be a sudden and abrupt influx of the tide into a river or narrow strait), prevails in the principal branches of the Ganges, and in the Megna, but the Hughley River is more subject to them than the others. In the Hughley, or Calcutta River, the bore commences at Hughley Point (the place where the river first contracts itself), and is perceptible above Hughley Town; and so quick is its motion, that it hardly employs four hours in travelling from one to the other, although the distance is nearly 70 miles. At Calcutta it sometimes occasions an instantaneous rise of five feet, and both here and in every part of its track, the boats on its approach immediately quit the shore, and make for safety to the middle of the river.

Burrampooter and Megna are names belonging to the same river in different parts of its course. The Megna falls into the Burrampooter, and though a much smaller river, communicates its name to the other during the rest of its course to the sea. The Burrampooter, for a distance of 400 miles through Bengal, bears a resemblance to the Ganges, except that during the last 60 miles, before its junction with the Ganges, it forms a stream, which is regularly from four to five miles wide, and but for its freshness, might pass for an arm of the sea. In the channels between the islands in the mouth of the Megna, the height of the bore is said to exceed 12 feet, and is so terrific in its appearance, and dangerous in its consequences, that no boat will venture to pass at spring tide.

KEDGEREE

Is a small village on the western bank of the river, where the ships of war frequenting this river, usually anchor. There is an European resident, who has the care of the post-office, and who supplies ships with provisions and other necessaries. The Resident's house stands on a rising ground; the village is small, but the land around it flat and low, and the situation considered unhealthy during the months of July, August, and September, when the periodical rains take place, and the heats are excessive.

Refreshments of all kinds are in abundance here, and very cheap. Fowls and ducks, two rupees per dozen; geese, three rupees per dozen; pine-apples, plantains, limes, shaddocks, &c. all extremely reasonable.

DIAMOND HARBOUR

Is situated on the eastern bank of the river. Here the Company's regular ships usually remain to unload their outward, and the greater part of their homeward-bound cargoes; the remainder is taken in lower down the river, in Sagor Roads. The Company have mooring chains laid down, and warehouses, or bankahalls, for the reception of ships' stores, rigging, &c.; and a regular market is held, where all sorts of provisions and refreshments are to be procured in abundance, and cheap.

A short distance above this anchorage, the bed of the river turns to the left; and a little further is the mouth of a large river, improperly called the Old Ganges, but its true name is the Roopunarain. The place where it unites with the Hughley, is the most dangerous part of the navigation of the river; and on the point made by the confluence of these rivers, a fort was recently built, called Fort Mornington, in order to command the river, and to be able to prevent any vessels from coming up it; but it has been since abandoned, in consequence of the unhealthiness of the climate.

FULTA

Is situated a short distance higher up on the right side of the river; it was formerly a Dutch possession, and in the prosperous days of that Company, their ships usually lay here.

The establishment on shore consisted of two houses; one of which, the inn, is built partly of bricks, and the other, the residence of the Commandant, was constructed of mats and bamboos. The village, however, is considerable, and has a bazar well supplied with provisions, vegetables, fruits, &c. There is generally an European residing here, who undertakes to supply the homeward-bound East Indiamen with sheep, poultry, and other stock at reasonable prices.

Fulta is remarkable for being the retreat of a part of the English factory when it escaped from Calcutta, on its being taken by Surajah Dowlah in 1756.

Reserving Calcutta for a separate chapter, the settlements higher up the river are now enumerated.

BARNAGORE

Is a small village on the eastern bank of the river, about five miles from Calcutta; the Dutch had formerly a small factory here subordinate to Chinsurah. Various kinds of piece-goods are manufactured, particularly a coarse kind of blue handkerchiefs; and Surat piece-goods are imitated here, but they are generally of a thin and open texture.

SERHAMPORE.

This town is situated on the western bank of the river, about five miles from Barnagore. The Danes had an establishment here for the purchasing piece-goods, indigo, and other Bengal produce. The town extends about two miles in length, but its breadth is inconsiderable, and has no fortifications, only a battery for saluting. Serhampore, when in possession of the Danes, was a place of refuge for numbers of people from Calcutta, to evade their creditors. Nearly opposite on the other bank of the river, are the cantonments of Barrackpore.

BANKIBAZAR.

About three miles higher up the river, on its eastern bank, is a small village, where the East India Company of Ostend had formerly a factory; it was taken from them by the Moors about 1748, previous to which they had abandoned the trade of Bengal.

CHANDERNAGORE

Is situated on the western bank of the river, about four miles above the latter place; it formerly belonged to the French. The territory attached to it extends about two miles along the banks of the river, and about 1½ mile inland. The fort, which is now in ruins, is nearly at an equal distance between the north and south extremity of the territory, and about thirty yards from the river; it is a square of about 130 yards with four bastions. The town is of considerable extent, and much trade used to be carried on here. Chandernagore was taken possession of by the English at the breaking out of the war in 1793.

CHINSURAH

Is also on the western bank of the river. This was the principal place belonging to the Dutch in Bengal. The town is built along the river, in an irregular manner, and many of the houses are large and handsome; on the land side it is closed by barrier gates. Here is a handsome church. The Dutch fort, which bears the name of Fort Gustavus, is constructed in a large open space, about 500 feet from the river; it is an oblong square, the longest sides about 600 feet long, the shortest about half that length. It was built in 1656: the walls are of stone, about fifteen feet high, but in a ruinous condition. There are three gates; one towards the river, one on the land side to the north, and the other to the south. The warehouses and residence of the Chief are within the fort. A battery of 21 guns is on the river-side, for the purpose of firing salutes. The Dutch carried on a considerable commerce from Chinsurah in piece-goods, opium, and other articles for the eastern and for the Europe markets.

HUGHLEY,

Or Hoogley, is about two miles above Chinsurah. The town extends near three miles along the banks of the river. At its northern extremity is a fort, now in ruins. The English, soon after their arrival in India, established a factory here; but the Resident being subjected to various impositions and hardships in conducting their trade, the factory withdrew to Calcutta in 1689.

BANDEL

Is a native village of considerable extent, about three miles to the northward of Hughley. The Portuguese keep a small establishment here; but the trade carried on, is very trifling.

COASTS OF BENGAL
AND
ARACAN
BENGAL
CALCUTTA
Pulta
Calpee
Ingeler
Balasore
Gangoo
Chedubu
Church Rock
Cape Negrais
Diamond

CHAPTER XXI.

Calcutta.

Description—Coins—Weights and Measures—Commerce of Bengal—Commerce of Bengal with London—European Articles suitable to the Bengal Market—Remarks thereon—Commerce of all Parts of British India with London—Commerce of Bengal with Denmark—Commerce of Bengal with Hamburgh—Commerce of Bengal with Lisbon—Commerce of Bengal with Malacca—Commerce of Bengal with Cadiz—Commerce of Bengal with Foreign Europe—Commerce of all Parts of British India with Foreign Europe—Commerce of Bengal with the United States of America—Commerce of all Parts of British India with the United States of America—Remarks thereon—Commerce of Bengal with the Coast of Malabar—Commerce of Bengal with the Coast of Coromandel—Commerce of Bengal with the Island of Ceylon—Commerce of Bengal with the Coast of Sumatra—Commerce of Bengal with British Asia—Commerce of the Presidencies with British Asia—Commerce of Bengal with the Arabian and Persian Gulfs—Commerce of Bengal with Pegu—Commerce of Bengal with Pulo Pinang and Places to the Eastward—Commerce of Bengal with Malacca—Commerce of Bengal with Batavia—Commerce of Bengal with Manilla—Commerce of Bengal with China—Commerce of Bengal with various Places—Commerce of Bengal with Foreign Asia—Commerce of all Parts of British India with Foreign Asia—Commerce of Bengal with all Parts of the World—Commerce of British India with all Parts—Price Current of European and Asiatic Commodities—Import and Export Duties—Custom-house Regulations—Regulations for sending Presents to Europe—Pilotage and Port Charges—Merchants resident at Calcutta—Established Rates of Commission—Merchant Vessels belonging to Calcutta—Ship-building—Insurance Companies—Company's Imports into Bengal from Europe—Company's Exports from Bengal to Europe—Recapitulation of Imports and Exports at Bengal—Company's Imports into all Parts of British India—Company's Exports from all Parts of British India—Recapitulation of Imports and Exports to and from all Parts of British India—Company's Revenues and Disbursements at Bengal—Company's Assets at Bengal—Government Securities at Bengal—Company's Revenues and Disbursements in all Parts of British India—Company's Assets in all Parts of British India—Bengal Army—Pay and Allowances—Total of Company's Army in all Parts of India—Civil Service—Allowances, &c.—Provisions and Refreshments—Articles procurable at Bengal—Annotta—Arroos Root—Borax—Castor Oil—Chillies—Cochineal—Ghee—Ginger—Hides—Horns—Indigo—Lacs, of Kinds—Munjeet—Myrabolans—Oil of Roses—Opium—Piece-goods—Rice—Rum—Safflower—Saltpetre—Silk, raw—Skins—Spikenard—Stowas—Sugar—Sugar-candy—Talc—Tamarinds—Terra Japonica.

CALCUTTA

Is the principal settlement belonging to the English in the East Indies, and the residence of the Governor-General, to which all their other settlements are subordinate; it is situated on the eastern bank of the river, in latitude 22° 33' North, and longitude 88° 28' East.

The town of Calcutta extends along the banks of the river about four miles and a half; its breadth in many places is inconsiderable. On landing, and entering the town, a very extensive square presents itself, with a large piece of water in the middle, for the public use. The pond has a grass-plot round it, and the whole is enclosed by a wall with a railing on the top; the sides of this enclosure are each nearly five hundred yards in length. The square itself is composed of magnificent houses, which renders Calcutta not only the handsomest town in Asia, but one of the finest in the world. One side of the square consists of a range of buildings occupied by persons in the civil service of the Company, and is called the Writers Buildings. Part of the side towards the river is taken up by the old fort, the first citadel built by the English after their establishment in Bengal. It is no longer used as a fortification; the ramparts are converted into gardens, and on the bastions, and in the inside of the fort, houses have been built for persons in the service of the Government, particularly the Officers of the Custom House. Between the old fort, and the right wing of the Writers Buildings, is erected a monument in remembrance of the barbarous conduct of the Nabob, on the capture of the fort in 1756. It is a pyramid truncated at the top, and standing upon a square pedestal, having a design in sculpture on each of its sides, and an inscription in the English and native languages, describing the occasion on which it was erected. It is surrounded with an iron railing, to prevent access to it, has shrubs planted about it, and exhibits an appearance not unsuitable to the event which it is intended to commemorate. Close to the old fort is the theatre.

There are two churches of the established religion at Calcutta, one of which is built in a superb and regular style of architecture, with a circular range of pillars in the front, of the Doric order, and beautiful in their proportion; the cornice and architrave are in the same style, and the edifice altogether is a model of grandeur and elegance. The other is a plain building. There are also churches for the Portuguese Catholics, another of the Greek persuasion, an Armenian conventicle, a synagogue, several mosques, and a great number of pagodas; so that nearly all the religions in the world are assembled in this capital.

The Black Town is to the northward of Calcutta, and contiguous to it; it is extremely large and populous, with very narrow, confined, and crooked streets, a few of which are paved. The houses are variously built, some with brick, others with mud, and a greater proportion with bamboos and mats. These different kinds of buildings, standing intermixed with each other, form a curious appearance. Those of the latter kind are invariably of one story, and covered with thatch; those of brick seldom exceed two stories, and have flat terraced roofs. Most of the streets have a small canal on each side, about a foot and a half to two feet wide.

Fort William is situated about a quarter of a mile below the town, and makes a noble appearance from the river. It was built by the English soon after the battle of Plassey, and immense sums have been expended upon it. It is of an octagon form; five of the faces are regular, while the forms of the other three, which front the river, are according to the fancy of the engineer. As no approach is to be feared on this side, and the fort can only be attacked by war, the river coming up to the glacis, it was merely necessary to present to vessels making such an attempt, a superiority of fire, and to provide the means of discovering them at a distance, in order to disable them the moment they should arrive within cannon-shot. These purposes have been attained by giving the citadel towards the water the form of a large salient angle, the faces of which enfilade the course of the river. From these faces the guns continue to bear upon the object till it approaches very near the capital; but then they are flanked on each side by a front parallel to the border of the river, which would fire with great effect on vessels lying with their broadsides opposite to it. This part is likewise defended by adjoining bastions, and a counter-guard that covers them. The five regular fronts are on the land side; the bastions have all very salient orillons, behind which are retired circular flanks extremely spacious, and an inverse double flank at the height of the berme. This double flank would be an excellent defence, and would the better serve to retard the passages of the ditch, as from its form it cannot be enfiladed. The orillon preserves it from the effect of ricochet-shot, and it is

not to be seen from any parallel. The berme opposite the curtain serves as a road to it, and contributes to the defence of the ditch, like a fausse-braye. The ditch is dry, with a cunette in the middle, which receives the water of the river by means of two sluices, that are commanded by the fort. The counterscarp and covered way are excellent; every curtain is covered with a large half-moon, without flanks, bonnet, or redoubt: but the faces mount thirteen pieces of heavy artillery each, thus giving to the defence of these ravelins a fire of twenty-six guns. The demi-bastions, which terminate the five regular fronts on each side, are covered by a counter-guard, of which the faces, like the half-moons, are pierced with thirteen embrasures. These counter-guards are connected with two redoubts, constructed in the place of arms of the adjacent re-entering angles; the whole is faced and pallisadoed with care, kept in admirable condition, and can make a vigorous defence against any army, however formidable. The advanced works are executed on an extensive scale, and the angles of the half-moons being extremely acute, project a great way into the country, so as to be in view of each other beyond the flanked angle of the polygon, and take the trenches in the rear at an early period of the approach.

The fort contains only such buildings as are necessary, such as the residence of the Commandant, quarters for the officers and troops, and the arsenal. Exclusive of these, the interior of the fort is perfectly open, presenting to the sight large grass plots, gravel walks occasionally planted with trees, piles of cannon, bombs, balls, and whatever can give to the place a grand, noble, and military appearance. Each gate has a house over it, destined for the residence of a Major, and are large and handsome buildings.

Between the fort and the town a level space intervenes, called the Esplanade. The Government House, and Chowringhee Road, a line of detached houses belonging to Europeans, make a very interesting figure: they are detached from each other, and insulated in a great space, the general approach to which is by a flight of steps, with large protecting porticoes, which give an elegant and handsome appearance. The Government House is situated on the western side of the Esplanade, and is a large and beautiful fabric, from whatever point it is viewed. Over the four arches, or gates that lead to it, there are placed sphinxes and various emblematical figures, that have a good effect, and the King's and Company's arms adorn both the western and eastern gates.

The following is an abstract from the Acts of Parliament regulating the Government and Supreme Court of Judicature of Bengal.

The civil and military government of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa is vested in a Governor-General and three Counsellors. Vacancies therein are to be supplied by the Directors, and the Counsellors to be taken from the civil servants, of not less than twelve years standing. If the Directors neglect to fill up vacancies for two months after the notification thereof, the King may supply such; but the parties so appointed, only to be recalled by the King. Provisional appointments may be made by the Directors, but no salary paid till the parties are in the actual possession of the office. If a vacancy in the office of Governor-General takes place, when there is no provisional successor on the spot, the Counsellor next in rank to fill the office till a successor arrives, or a person on the spot is appointed; and if, during this interval, the Council should be reduced to one member only, besides the acting Governor-General, he may call any Senior Merchant he may think fit, to act as a temporary Counsellor till the arrival of a Governor-General, or fresh appointments made; the salaries only to be received while holding the offices. Although no provisional successor on the spot, the Commander in Chief not to succeed to the office of Governor-General, except specially appointed so to do; but the Counsellor next in rank to him to succeed. If a vacancy occurs, in the Members of Council, and no provisional Counsellor on the spot, the Governor-General in Council to appoint such from the Senior Merchants. The Commander in Chief, not being Governor-General also, when appointed to the Council, to rank next the Governor-General; but not to receive salary as a Counsellor, unless specially appointed so to do.

If any Member of Council become incapable of acting, or be absent, and the Governor-General should require the advice of a full Council on any urgency, he may call provisional successors; or if none such be on the spot, Senior Merchants to the Council. Persons so called, not to be paid any salary, nor to be deprived of any office on account thereof. The King may remove any servants of the Company; a duplicate of the Instrument for such removal, being transmitted to the Chairman, or Deputy Chairman, within eight days after being signed by his Majesty. The Directors may also remove their servants, &c. except in the case of appointments made by the King, in consequence of the Court of Directors not appointing. Departure from India, or arrival in Europe of Governor-General, &c. deemed resignation of office; but during residence in India, resignation must be notified under hand and seal. Salary, &c. to cease on the respective days such acts take place. If the Presidency is quitted, except on the known actual service of the Company, salary, &c. not to be paid during such absence; and if parties quitting, do not return, the salary, &c. to cease on the day the Presidency was left.

When Council assembled, to proceed in the first place to matters proposed by the Governor-General; and on any question of the Counsellors, the Governor-General may twice adjourn the discussion for forty-eight hours. All proceedings of Council to be expressed as made by the Governor-General in Council, and to be signed by the Chief Secretary.

The Governor-General and Council to superintend the other Presidencies; the latter to obey their orders, except they may be repugnant to the orders of the Directors, acquainting the Governor-General, &c. with their orders, stating the dates of the last dispatches from the Directors; the subordinate governments also informing the Governor-General in Council of the receipt of such dispatches as they may deem contrary to the orders of the Governor-General, &c. who is finally to decide. The Governor-General, &c. not to commence hostilities against native powers, nor to enter into treaty for those purposes, but by the authority of the Court of Directors, except in cases where hostilities have been commenced, or preparations for that purpose made. Subordinate governments not to declare war, &c. but in consequence of orders from the Governor-General, &c. or the Court of Directors; and to make all treaties (if possible) subject to the ratification of the Governor-General, &c. also to inform the Governor-General in Council of all things material to be communicated, or that may be required of them.

The Governor-General may issue warrants for securing and proceeding against suspected persons, and may also seize ships, &c. with the persons of those engaged in illicit trade, and send them to England.

If the Governor-General differs in opinion with the Council after they shall have stated their opinions in writing, he may direct such measures thereon as he may see fit, on his own responsibility, so that such measures could have been legally effected with the consent of the Council. These powers not to be exercised by Governors-General succeeding in consequence of death, &c. except provisionally appointed, or confirmed by the Directors. While Governors-General are acting previous to confirmation, all questions to be decided by plurality of voices, the Governor-General having the casting vote; but the Governor-General in no case to act against the opinion of the Council in judicial matters, or in regulations for the good order of civil government, &c. nor by his own authority to impose any tax, &c.

When the Governor-General may be at either of the other Presidencies, the powers of the Governors there to be suspended (except in judicial proceedings) from the proclamation of the arrival to that of the departure of the Governor-General, or till his departure; during such period the powers of government to be vested in him, the respective Governors sitting and acting as Members of Council; and when absent from Bengal, the Governor-General may appoint a Member of Council, Vice President and Deputy Governor of Fort William, such Deputy to exercise only similar powers to those of the Governor of Madras, &c. The Governor-General's orders to the other Presidencies, or officers acting under them, to be obeyed as though issued by the Governor-General in Council, he taking the responsibility upon himself, and giving

the respective Presidencies copies of such orders, and also transmitting them to the Court of Directors. The Directors, with the approbation of the Board of Commissioners, may suspend the exercise of the independent authority of the Governor-General, whenever they see fit, such suspension to take place from the receipt of the orders to that effect, and may also revive such powers again.

The Governor-General, &c. demanding or receiving presents, gifts, &c. wilfully neglecting or disobeying the orders of the Court of Directors, and the making of corrupt bargains, deemed misdemeanours in law, punishable to Courts in India and in England, and for acts committed in the territories of native Princes, and against them and their subjects, the same as though committed within the British territories. No action against the Governor-General, &c. to be stayed or compounded before a final judgment, except with the consent of the Board of Commissioners; and after any sentence pronounced, the judgment not to be compounded, nor persons suspended or dismissed by such sentences, to be restored.

The Governor-General, &c. not to be concerned in trade, except on account of the Company. May appoint covenanted servants, or other British subjects, to act as Justices of the Peace and Coroners.

The Governor-General signifying his intention to be absent from Council, the senior member present at the Board to preside, with the powers of Governor-General, while the Council is assembled. Acts of such Council not valid, without the signature of the Governor-General, if he shall be at the Presidency, and not indisposed; but if the Governor-General shall refuse to sign such acts of Council, the Members who do sign, and himself mutually to exchange in writing their opinions; the Governor-General to be subject ultimately to the same responsibility which attaches to his dissent from proposed measures when present in Council, by the 33d Geo. III. chap. 52. The Governor-General not hereby prevented from appointing a Vice President during absence from his Government.

The Governor-General in Council to take order for the transportation of persons (other than natives) convicted of certain crimes to the eastern coast of New South Wales.

The Court of Directors may appoint the Commander in Chief at Bengal to be a Member of Council, and to rank next the Governor-General, although the chief command of the forces in India may be vested in such Governor-General; but in case of a vacancy in the office of Governor-General, such Commander in Chief not to succeed thereto (except provisionally appointed so to do); but the vacancy to be filled up by the Counsellor next in rank to the Commander in Chief.

The Governor-General and Council not amenable to the Supreme Court for acts done in their public capacity, nor for their rules and regulations in revenue matters; persons impleaded for acts done by their order, the production of such order to be their discharge. Governor-General, &c. and persons acting under their orders, subject nevertheless to process, &c. in any competent Court in the kingdom. Parties aggrieved by orders of Governor-General, &c. on making oath of the same in the Supreme Court, and giving bond to complain in Great Britain before a competent Court, the Supreme Court to compel production of those orders, &c. and to examine witnesses, which examination is to be taken as evidence in any of the Courts in Westminster. No suit to be carried on against the Governor-General, &c. in Great Britain (the High Court of Parliament excepted), unless commenced within five years after the commission of the offence, or five years after the arrival of the parties in England.

The Governor-General's salary to be £25,000, and each of the Counsellors £10,000 per annum, to take place from the day of embarkation of such as may be appointed in England, and of such as may be in India, upon the taking the office upon them, in lieu of all emoluments whatever.

In 1773 an Act passed, authorizing His Majesty to erect a Supreme Court of Judicature at Fort William, in Bengal, to consist of a Chief Justice, and three other Judges, who are to be Barristers of not less than five years standing, to be named by the King. The Supreme Court to appoint officers, and to fix their salaries, with the approbation of the Governor in Council; to form rules of practice; to be a Court

of Record, and of Oyer and Terminer, and of gaol delivery for the towns of Calcutta, factory of Fort William, and subordinate factories. Its jurisdiction to extend to all British subjects in Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, under the protection of the Company, in all cases civil, criminal, ecclesiastical, or admiralty; except in regard to the Governor-General in Council, unless for treason and felony. The Governor-General, Council, and Judges not to be subject to arrest. Appeals from this Court may be made to the King in Council. The Mayor's Court at Calcutta to be suppressed, and the records, &c. to be delivered over to the Supreme Court. The salary of the Chief Justice to be £8,000, and each of the Judges £6,600 per annum, to commence when parties appointed are in England, on embarkation, and when parties appointed are in India, on taking upon them the execution of the office. Restricted from taking presents, &c.

By the 37th Geo. III. chap. 142, His Majesty may appoint pensions out of the revenues of India, to Judges retiring after seven years' residence in India:—To the Chief Justice, a pension of not more than £2,000 per annum, and to each of the other Judges not more than £1,500 per annum, so that a grant is not made for a sum exceeding that now paid to a Puisne Judge. If the Recorder of Madras or Bombay should die, and no successor appointed by His Majesty be on the spot, the junior Puisne Judge of the Supreme Court to proceed to fill the office of Recorder, till a successor arrives: to receive the salary of Recorder while so acting, and his office in the Supreme Court not to be vacated thereby.

By the 39th and 40th Geo. III. chap. 79, the salaries of the Judges to cease on their quitting India. The junior Puisne Judge only to proceed to Bombay, to act as Recorder, in case of the Supreme Court at Madras, erected by this act, not being full. When British subjects die intestate, and on citation neither next of kin nor creditors appear, the registrar of the Ecclesiastical Court (this Court is vested with ecclesiastical powers), to have letters of administration granted him to collect the assets of the deceased, and to pay them into Court: but if next of kin, or creditors, on return of citation, be absent in Europe, and shall, on returning to India, establish their claims, the letters to be recalled, and granted them. Judges may make rules, &c. for extending to insolvent debtors the relief granted by the 32d Geo. II.

1633. The English visited Bengal. The President of the Company's factory at Surat obtained a phirmaund from the Mogul, dated 2d February, for liberty of trade in the Province of Bengal, without any other restriction than that the English ships were to resort to the port of Pipley. A factory was soon after fixed at Hughley.

1652. The factors in Bengal obtained a phirmaund for free trade, without payment of customs; and in 1662 factories were settled at Balasore, Cossimbazar, and Patna.

1668. The establishment of pilots for the navigation of the river took place in this year.

1678. A nishan, or grant, was obtained for privileges of trade in the provinces bordering on the Ganges; and in 1681 Bengal was constituted a distinct agency from Fort St. George.

1684. The Company's trade having experienced much interruption from the native Governors, the Court sent out instructions to commence hostilities against the Mogul, with the object of obtaining possession of Chittagong. By an unforeseen incident hostilities were brought on in a premature and unexpected manner. On the 28th of October, 1686, the English soldiers quarrelled with those of the Nabob. An action took place, in which the Nabob's troops were defeated with great loss; a battery of eleven guns taken and spiked, the town of Hughley cannonaded by the fleet, and 500 houses burnt. The Governor solicited a cessation of arms, which was granted. They offered to restore the privileges of trade, but the Agent and Council, considering that Hughley was an open town, retired on the 20th of December, 1686, to Chutanutlee or Calcutta, from its being a safer situation during any negotiations.

with the Nabob, or Mogul, and a treaty was agreed upon that a grant of land should be given to build a fort, liberty to erect a mint, and freedom of trade.

1687. The Nabob appeared suddenly before Hughley with his army in February. On this infraction of the armistice, the English stormed and took the Fort of Tanna, and plundered every thing between that place and Ingelee, of which they took possession without resistance, and in which they fortified themselves: they subsequently burnt Balasore, and destroyed above forty sail of the Mogul's ships. In the month of September, the Nabob granted permission for their return to Hughley, and to enjoy their ancient privileges; but the war being resumed, the Company's property at Calcutta was embarked on the 8th of November, 1688, and proceeded to Balasore, and from thence to Madras.

1690. The Mogul's government appearing more conciliatory, and an invitation having been received to resettle the factories in Bengal, Mr. Charnock proceeded from Madras, was favourably received on his arrival, and obtained a phirmaund, dated the 27th of April, in the 33d year of Aurungzebe's reign, the preamble to which specified, that the Mogul, having pardoned all offences, had granted liberty of trade to the English in Bengal without interruption; but explained, that this permission must be understood as allowing former privileges only, without exacting any fine from them.

1696. The Rajahs on the western side of the Hughley having taken up arms, and made considerable progress before the Mogul's forces could be assembled in sufficient force to oppose them, the European settlements declared in favour of the Nabob, and requested his permission to put their factories in a state of defence. He ordered them in general terms to defend themselves; whereupon they with great diligence raised walls with bastions round their factories; the Dutch at Hughley, the French at Chandernagore, and the English at Calcutta. Such was the origin of the three European forts in the province of Bengal, and they were the first which the Mogul Government suffered foreigners to build in any part of the empire.

1698. The Nabob granted a nishan for a settlement of the Company's rights, and for the towns of Chutanuttee, Govindpore, and Calcutta. Bengal was from this period considered a Presidency. The Council was to consist of five members; the President to fill up vacancies, subject to the approbation of the Court; the rule of promotion to be by seniority, and none of the servants to be dismissed, but by an order of the Court. Orders were sent from England to increase the fortifications, and render this seat of trade secure, not only against native powers, but against European rivals; and in compliment to His Majesty, the fort was to be denominated Fort William. In 1701, the Company ordered that the fort should be made a regular pentagon, defended by bastions, and fortified in the strongest possible manner.

1702. At the union of the two East India Companies, the English had the following factories in Bengal dependent on the Presidency at Fort William; *viz.* Fort William, Chutanuttee, Balasore, Cossimbuzar, Dacca, Hughley, Malda, Rajahmahl, and Patna.

1707. Aurungzebe, the Great Mogul, died the 10th of February, 1707, after a reign of upwards of fifty years. He was the most able monarch that ever reigned over Hindostan. From the period of his death may be dated the commencement of those troubles which dismembered the empire, and paved the way for the present extensive controul of the East India Company over the Provinces of Bengal, &c.

1715. In this year the Company sent a deputation to Delhi, accompanied with presents of curious clockwork, glass-ware, toys, woollens, silks, &c. to the value of £30,000, to solicit redress for past, and security against future oppressions on the part of the Mogul's officers. Their petition was presented to the Mogul in January, 1716, and contained, on behalf of the Presidency of Calcutta, after representing all the impositions

of the Nabob of Bengal, the following requests:—That the impositions should be obviated by positive orders that all persons, whether Europeans or natives, who might be indebted or accountable to the Company, should be delivered up to the Presidency at Calcutta on the first demand; that the officers of the mint at Muxadavad should at all times, when required, allow three days in the week for the coinage of the Company's money; and that a passport, or *dustuck*, signed by the President at Calcutta, should exempt the goods it specified, from being visited, or stopped, by the officers of the Bengal Government, on any pretence whatsoever. And, in order to maintain these excellent privileges, if granted, it was requested, "That the English might purchase the lordships of 37 towns, with the same immunities as had permitted them to purchase Calcutta, Chutanutlee, and Govindpore. After considerable delay, 34 patents, including the different subjects of the petition, were issued in the Mogul's name, and signed with his seal. The Ambassadors having accomplished their mission, took leave of the Emperor in July, 1717, and returned to the Presidency.

The Company at this period confined themselves entirely to the trade between England and India, and relinquished to their agents that carried on from port to port in India. The superior skill of the English in navigation, induced all classes of merchants in the province of Bengal to freight most of the goods which they exported to foreign markets, on the shipping belonging to the colony, which in ten years after the embassy, amounted to 10,000 tons, by which many private fortunes were acquired, without injuring the Company's trade, or subjecting their property to disputes with Government; and the people of all denominations in Calcutta, enjoyed a degree of independence and freedom unknown to all the other inhabitants of Bengal, who were subject to the oppressions of the Nabob.

1718. The Mogul issued patents annexing the provinces of Bahar and Orixa to that of Bengal.

1742. The Mahrattas having invaded Bengal, the native inhabitants of Calcutta requested and obtained permission to dig a ditch, at their own expence, round the Company's bounds, which extended about seven miles, and which from the occasion was called the Mahratta ditch.

1756. In this year Surajah Dowlah succeeded to the Nabobship of the provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa. The English at Calcutta having incurred his displeasure, he declared war against them, took their fort at Coosimbuzar, and marched against Calcutta, which he invested on the 15th of June, the description of which at this period was as follows:

The fort of Calcutta, called Fort William, was situated near the river, and nearly half way between the northern and southern extremities of the Company's territories. Its sides to the east and west extended 210 yards, the southern side 130, and the northern 100. It had four bastions, mounting each ten guns; the curtains were only four feet thick, and terraces, which were the roofs of chambers, formed the tops of the ramparts; and windows belonging to these chambers, were in several places opened in the curtains. The gateway on the eastern side projected, and mounted five guns, three in front, and one on each flank towards the bastions. Under the western face, and on the brink of the river, was a line of heavy cannon mounted in embrasures of solid masonry; and this work was joined to the two western bastions by two slender walls, in each of which was a gate of palliasdoes. In the year 1747, warehouses had been built contiguous to the southern curtain, and, projecting on the outside between the two bastions, rendered them useless to one another: however the terraces of these warehouses were strong enough to bear the firing of three pounders, which were mounted in barbett over a slight parapet.

The houses of the English inhabitants occupied the ground 600 yards towards the east, and half a mile to the north and south of the fort; but lay scattered in spacious and separate inclosures, and several of them overlooked the fort, as did the English Church, which stood opposite to the N.E. bastion. Under these disadvantages the fort was deemed so little capable of defence, that it was resolved to oppose the enemy in the principal streets and avenues.

Though the Nabob threatened to drive the English entirely out of his dominions, yet he proposed an accommodation, provided they would pay him his duty on the trade for 15 years, defray the expences of his army, and deliver up the Indian merchants who were in the fort. This being refused, a siege commenced, and the place was taken on the 20th of June, through the treachery of the guard who had charge of one of the gates. The Nabob promised, on the word of a soldier, that no harm should be done to the English; nevertheless they were shut up in a prison so small, that out of 146, all perished in the course of the night, except 22, for want of air.

On intelligence of this disaster reaching Madras, a considerable force under Colonel Clive, was embarked on board Admiral Watson's squadron, who arrived in Bengal river, at Fulta, on the 15th of December, and on the 2d of January they recaptured Fort William, and on the 11th they took and destroyed the town of Hughley. An action afterwards took place, in which the Nabob's troops were routed with great slaughter. These successes made Surajah Dowlah very solicitous to conclude a peace, which was ratified on the 9th of February, 1757, by which he agreed to restore the Company's factories, and all their monies, goods, and effects, and to permit them to fortify Calcutta as they thought proper. Liberty was given to coin their own imports of gold and silver, and all merchandise passing with their passports, exempted from tax, fee, or imposition. He permitted them to take possession of the villages of which the grant had been obtained from the Emperor in 1717, and confirmed all the privileges which had been conceded to them by former Emperors since their arrival in the province.

This treaty was ratified on oath, but no confidence could be placed in the Nabob, who soon disregarded the treaty, and renewed his preparations for war, assisted by the French at Chandernagore; France being at this period at war with Great Britain. The English forces invested and took that settlement on March 24th. These operations, which were concerted with judgment, and executed with spirit, established the military character of the English in India. The Nabob was humbled, but continued averse to comply with the stipulations of the treaty. His violent and tyrannic temper having discontented his courtiers, a conspiracy, headed by Jaffier Ally Cawn, was entered into among them, to divest him of the government. The English Council judged it advisable to join Jaffier Ally Cawn with their troops, as such a step seemed the most effectual way of establishing peace in the country, and settling the English on a good and permanent foundation. For this purpose a treaty was entered into between Jaffier Ally Cawn, Admiral Watson, Colonel Clive, Governor Drake, and the Committee, which consisted of twelve articles.

By this treaty "The Nabob agreed to, and admitted of the agreement and treaty made with Surajah Dowlah, that the enemies of the English should be his enemies, whether Europeans or others. That whatever goods or factories belonged to the French in Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, should be delivered to the English, and the French never permitted to have factories or settlements any more in these provinces.—That to indemnify the Company for their losses by the capture of Calcutta, and the charges they had been at to repossess the factories, he would give 10,000,000 rupees, or £1,250,000; that to indemnify the English inhabitants, who suffered by the capture of Calcutta, he would give 50,00,000 rupees, or £625,000 sterling; that to indemnify the losses suffered by Gentoos, Moormen, and others, he would give 20,00,000 rupees, or £250,000 sterling; and that to the inhabitants, the Armenian Peots of Calcutta, who suffered by the capture, he would give 7,00,000 rupees, or £87,500 sterling;—the division of all these donations was to be left to the Admiral, the Colonel, and the Committee.—That he would give up entirely to the Company the Mahratta ditch all round Calcutta, and 600 yards all round about the ditch.—That the lands to the southward of Calcutta, as low as Culpee, should be under the government of the English Company, but the rents should be paid into the Mogul's treasury.—That whenever Jaffier Ally Cawn sent for the assistance of the English troops, their pay and charges should be disbursed by him.—That from Hughley, downwards, he would build no new forts near the river.—And that as soon

as he was established Soubah of these provinces, he would immediately perform these articles."—Some of the principal men were united in this confederacy, who agreed that Jaffier Ally Cawn should succeed to the Soubahship, as he was a man of the first rank, and greatly esteemed by all ranks of people.

The English troops took the field on the 13th of June, and on the 22d they were met by Surajah Dowlah, at the head of a numerous army, near Plassey, where Colonel Clive obtained a complete victory, with but little loss. He then placed Jaffier Ally Cawn on the throne, who had the usual homage paid him by all ranks of people, as Soubah of the provinces of Bengal, Behar, and Orixa. Surajah Dowlah was soon afterwards taken prisoner, and privately put to death. The news of the battle of Plassey arrived at Calcutta on the 25th of June, when the purport of the treaties was made publicly known, and a vessel dispatched with the welcome tidings to England.

The new Soubah, among other acts of gratitude shewn to his brave allies, made a present to the English troops and sailors, by whose valour he had acquired his dignity, of 60,00,000 rupees, or £750,000, and the sums stipulated by the treaty for other services, amounted to £1,875,000 sterling, for the East India Company and inhabitants, besides £37,500 for the native inhabitants of Calcutta; so that the whole amount was £2,962,500, and Colonel Clive was honoured with the dignity of an Omrah, with a grant of about £27,000 sterling per annum.

Thus in about a fortnight a complete revolution was accomplished in a great and populous state, whereby the French were entirely driven out of Bengal and all its dependencies, and immense profit and advantage derived by the East India Company, who acquired great power and influence in the country, and obtained large districts, which produced a clear revenue of near £600,000 per annum to them.

1759. About the beginning of August, the President and Council of Calcutta received intelligence that a powerful armament was equipping at Batavia, and intended against Bengal. Lord Clive acquainted the Soubah therewith, who sent peremptory orders to Chinsurah, forbidding the admission of any troops or vessels into the country; but it afterwards appeared that the Soubah wanted to shake off his dependence upon the English, and to throw himself into the arms of the Dutch, with whom he had entered into a secret negotiation so early as in 1758. The Dutch fleet, consisting of seven ships, of which four were of 36 guns, arrived in the river in November, and were attacked and defeated by three English East Indiamen, the Calcutta, Duke of Dorset, and Hardwicke; whereupon the Dutch Government at Chinsurah concluded articles of accommodation with the English.

1760. The affairs of the Soubah, and those of the English Company, having taken an unfavourable turn, which was imputed to the bad conduct of the Soubah, the President presented a memorial to Jaffier Ally Cawn, containing a statement of the grievances and oppressions suffered under his government, and recommended that he should appoint Meer Cossim, his brother-in-law, as coadjutor to it, to which he declared his willingness to accede, on condition that his life and honour should be saved, and a sufficient allowance secured to him for his maintenance; whereupon Meer Cossim was seated on the throne, and received the usual congratulations, and the old Nabob took up his residence at Calcutta, where he was properly protected, and treated with every mark of respect.

The new Soubah ceded a large tract of land to the Company, and granted them considerable immunities in trade. He soon after removed the seat of his Government to Mongheer, which he began to fortify with the utmost expedition. In 1762 he began everywhere to subject the English traders to the payment of certain duties throughout his dominions, and required that their disputes, if beyond the limits of their own jurisdiction, should be decided by his magistrates. However the Governor, Mr. Vansittart, had a conference with the Soubah, at Mongheer, when a temporary redress was agreed upon, and the Governor returned to Calcutta; but in January, 1763, the Nabob began to exact duties at

Dacca and other English factories, which gave the English great alarm, and obliged them to oppose the Nabob they had so recently raised to the throne. The English commenced hostilities by taking Patna, from whence they were immediately driven by the Nabob's army. They soon after defeated him in the field, and pursued him to his capital, Mongheer, of which they obtained possession on the 11th of October, and on the 6th of November they reduced Patna, the last place of strength belonging to him. Meer Cossim took refuge with Sujah Dowlah, Nabob of Oude, and Vizier to the Mogul, who determined to assist him in attempting to recover Bengal; and an immense army was collected, which was defeated by the English on the 22d of October, 1764, at Buxar, with very great loss; soon after which, the Mogul, Shah Allum, visited the English camp, and threw himself under their protection.

1765. Lord Clive was appointed Commander in Chief, President, and Governor of Bengal, with full powers. On his arrival, his Lordship concluded a treaty with the Mogul and Sujah Dowlah. By this treaty the Mogul constituted the East India Company his perpetual Duans of the Bengal provinces, for which they were to pay him 26,00,000 rupees yearly. The Company engaged themselves to pay to the Nabob of Bengal, for the expences of the civil government, and for the support of his dignity, 53,00,000 rupees yearly: the remainder of the revenues of Bengal were allotted to the Company, for their expences in supporting armies to protect the country. By this treaty the Company became in possession of a clear yearly revenue, exempt from all charges, expences, and deductions whatever, amounting to £1,700,000 a year. Thus the East India Company acquired the sovereignty of a territory equal in extent to the most flourishing kingdom in Europe.

Since the above period, the Company's territories have been considerably extended, and their revenues much increased, in consequence of various conquests made in the wars in which they have been engaged.

1777. From papers laid before Parliament, it appears that the revenues and disbursements at this Presidency from the years, 1761 to 1777, were as follow:

5 years, May 1761 to April 1766	Revenues £4,320,000	Charges £4,108,000
8 years, May 1766 to April 1774	19,790,000	13,590,000
3 years, May 1774 to April 1777	8,270,000	4,657,000
	£32,380,000	£22,355,000

leaving a balance in sixteen years of £10,025,000, on an average of £626,562 per annum, exclusive of various sums received during the same period as subsidies, and other casual supplies.

1800. The following account of the state of the Company's territories in India was given by the Marquis Wellesley, late Governor-General. "The British possessions in India now constitute one of the most extensive and populous empires in the world. The immediate administration of the government of the various provinces and nations, composing this empire, is chiefly confided to the European civil servants of the East India Company. Those provinces, namely Bengal, Bahar, Orixa, and Benares, the Company's Jaghire in the Carnatic, the Northern Circars, the Baramhal, and other districts ceded by the peace of Seringaptam in 1792, which are under the more immediate and direct administration of the civil servants of the Company, are acknowledged to form the most flourishing and opulent part of India, in which property, life, civil order, and religious liberty are more secure, and the people enjoy a larger portion of the benefits of good government than in any other country in this quarter of the globe."

1810. The revenues of Bengal in the year 1808-9 amounted to £9,816,458; the charges and disbursements to £6,476,986; leaving a surplus revenue of £2,339,472. The debt at this Presidency was at the same time £20,286,646.

COINS.

Accounts are kept at Bengal in an imaginary coin, called current rupees, with its subdivisions, annas, and pice; 12 pice make one anna, and 16 annas one current rupee. To this currency must all the real specie be turned or reduced, before any sum can be regularly entered into a merchant's book. By a late order from the Court of Directors, the Company's accounts are now kept in Sicca rupees.

The coins current are gold mohurs, with its subdivisions, halves and quarters; Sicca rupees, halves and quarters; annas, copper pice, and half pice. The two last are of copper, and coined in England.

Gold.—In 1766 the Bengal gold mohur weighed 179,66 grs. was of the fineness of 20 carats, and passed for 14 silver rupees. The gold was here overvalued, for it passed in proportion to silver, as 16,45 to 1. In 1769 it was ordered that the Bengal gold mohur should weigh 190,773 grs. and in this coinage gold was valued to silver nearly as 14,8 to 1; and, lastly, by Regulation 35, Anno 1793, it was directed that the nineteen sun gold mohur should weigh 190,894 grs. and contain $\frac{1}{4}$ of a grain in 100 of alloy, and that it should pass for 16 nineteen sun Sicca rupees. Here gold is valued in proportion to silver as 14,85 to 1, which is a small fraction less than gold bears to silver in the present coinage of Bombay.

Silver.—The standard of the Bengal money has ever been silver. Gold is occasionally coined, but the great bulk of the currency is silver.

The most common silver coin is the rupee of 1 sicca, or 10 masa weight, of the fineness of 11 oz. 15 dwts. 4 grs. 8 dec. troy. The Sicca weight is equal to 7 dwts. 11 grs. 55 dec. and is thus divided:

1 pice.....	make	is equal to troy weight, grs.	9352
12 pice.....		1 anna ditto	11,2219
16 annas..		1 Sicca rupee ditto.....	179,5511

These rupees were formerly called Sicca rupees, only during the year after their coinage, when the batta they bore on current rupees was 16 per cent.; the second this was reduced to 13, and the third and following years the batta was 11 per cent.; they were then called Sonaut or Sanat rupees. But with a view to abolish this distinction, all the rupees coined of late years by the East India Company, have been dated the nineteenth sun, that is the 19th year of the Mogul's reign; and by Regulation 35, anno 1793, it is ordered that the nineteen sun Sicca rupees shall be received as the legal coin of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa.

There are various other kinds of rupees to be met with in Bengal, whose fineness and weight are different, though their denominations are the same. From this, and from the natives frequently punching holes in the rupees, and filling up the vacancy with base metal, and their wilfully diminishing the weight of the coin after coming from the mint, the currencies of rupees from the different provinces are of different values. This defect has introduced a custom of employing shroffs, or money-changers, whose business it is to set a value upon these different currencies, according to every circumstance, either in their favour, or to their prejudice. When a sum of rupees is brought to one of these shroffs, he examines them piece by piece, and ranges them according to their fineness; then by their weight; he then allows for the different legal battas upon Siccas and Sonauts; and this done, he values in gross by the rupees current what the whole are worth; so that the rupee current is the only thing fixed, by which coin is valued.

Cowries are made use of for small payments in the Bazar, and are generally thus reckoned:

4 cowries ...	make	1 gunda
20 gundas ...		1 pun
4 puns.....		1 anna
4 annas		1 cahun, which is about $\frac{1}{4}$ of a rupee

but they rise and fall according to the demand there is for them, and the quantity in the market.

Accounts are kept in lacs and crores. A lac is 100,000, and 1 crore is 10 lacs.

All rupees weigh, or ought to weigh, 10 massa weight; but they differ in fineness and touch, so that the coin of one province varies in another more than the intrinsic value of the specie.

The following is a table of the different kinds of rupees current at the Presidency, with their relative value to each other.

Current Rupees compared with other Rupees.

100 current Rupees are equal to	Sicca Rupees	86	3	4	100 Sicca rupees	are equal to Current Rupees.	116	0	0
	Arcot ditto	92	9	6	100 Arcot ditto		108	0	0
	Bombay ditto	90	14	7	100 Bombay ditto		110	0	0
	Duss Massa ditto	90	14	7	100 Duss Massa ditto		110	0	0
	Mooney Soortee do.	91	11	11	100 Mooney Soortee ditto		109	0	0
	Mochedan ditto	91	11	11	100 Mochedan ditto		109	0	0
	Old Sonaut ditto	90	1	4	100 Old Sonaut ditto		111	0	0
	Patna Sonaut ditto	90	1	3	100 Patna Sonaut ditto		111	0	0
	Sonaut Fooley do.	88	7	11	100 Sonaut Fooley ditto		113	0	0

Sicca Rupees compared with other Rupees.

100 Sicca Rupees are equal to	Current Rupees	116	0	0	100 Current Rupees	are equal to Sicca Rupees.	86	3	4
	Arcot	107	6	6	100 Arcot		93	1	8
	Bombay	105	7	3	100 Bombay		94	13	2
	Duss Massa	105	7	3	100 Duss Massa		94	13	2
	Mooney Soortee	106	6	9	100 Mooney Soortee		93	15	5
	Mochedan	106	6	9	100 Mochedan		93	15	5
	Old Sonaut	104	8	1	100 Old Sonaut		95	11	0
	Patna Sonaut	104	8	1	100 Patna Sonaut		95	11	0
	Sonaut Fooley	102	10	5	100 Sonaut Fooley		97	6	7

Sonaut Rupees compared with other Rupees.

100 Sonaut Rupees are equal to	Sicca Rupees	95	11	0	100 Sicca Rupees	are equal to Sonaut Rupees.	104	8	1
	Arcot	102	12	5	100 Arcot		97	4	9
	Bombay	100	14	7	100 Bombay		99	1	7
	Duss Massa	100	14	7	100 Duss Massa		99	1	7
	Mooney Soortee	101	13	4	100 Mooney Soortee		98	3	2
	Mochedan	101	13	4	100 Mochedan		98	3	2
	Sonaut Fooley	98	3	8	100 Sonaut Fooley		101	12	10
	Current Rupees	111	0	0	100 Current		90	1	5

Mooney Soortee and Mochedan Rupees compared with other Rupees.

100 Mooney Soortee, or Mochedan Rupees are equal to	Sicca Rupees	93	15	5	100 Sicca Rupees	are equal to Mooney Soortee Rupees.	106	6	9
	Arcot	100	14	10	100 Arcot		99	1	4
	Bombay	99	1	5	100 Bombay		100	14	8
	Duss Massa	99	1	5	100 Duss Massa		100	14	8
	Sonaut Fooley	96	7	4	100 Sonaut Fooley		103	10	9
	Current	109	0	0	100 Current		91	11	11
	Old Sonaut	98	3	2	100 Old Sonaut		101	13	4
	Patna Sonaut	98	3	2	100 Patna Sonaut		101	13	4

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

GREAT WEIGHTS are maunds, seers, chattacks, and siccas, thus divided:

5 seers	make	1 chattack,
16 chattacks		1 seer.
40 seers		1 maund

There are two maunds in use here, *viz.* the factory maund, which is 74lb. 10oz. 10drs. 666dec. avoirdupois; and the Bazar maund, which is 10 per cent. better, and is 82lbs. 2oz. 2drs. 133dec.

The Bengal Bazar and Factory maunds and their fractional parts reduced to avoirdupois weight, *viz.*

	Bazar Weight.				Factory Weight.			
	lbs.	oz.	drs.	dec.	lbs.	oz.	drs.	dec.
1 maund is....	82	2	2	133	74	10	10	666
20 seers	41	1	1	066	37	5	5	333
10 ditto	20	8	4	533	18	10	10	666
5 ditto	10	4	2	266	9	5	5	333
4 ditto	8	3	3	413	7	7	7	466
3 ditto	6	2	4	560	5	9	9	599

	Bazar Weight.				Factory Weight.			
	lbs.	oz.	drs.	dec.	lbs.	oz.	drs.	dec.
2 seers is	4	1	5	706	3	11	11	733
1 ditto.....	2	0	6	853	1	13	13	866
8 chattacks....	1	0	3	426	0	14	14	933
4 ditto	0	8	1	713	0	7	7	466
2 ditto	0	4	0	856	0	3	11	733
1 ditto	0	0	2	428	0	1	13	866

GOLD AND SILVER WEIGHTS.

4 punkos	make	1 dan or grain.
4 dans		1 rutty.
6¼ rutties		1 anna.
8 rutties		1 massa.
100 rutties		1 tolah.
12½ massas		1 tolah.
16 annas.....		1 tolah.
106¼ rutties		1 mohur.
13,28 massas		1 mohur.
17 annas.....		1 mohur.

The Sicca Rupee is 7 dwts. 11¼ troy weight.
The gold mohur is 7 dwts. 22$\frac{1}{10}$ ditto.

CLOTH MEASURE.

3 jorbes	make	1 angulla.
3 angullæ		1 gheriah.
8 gheriahs		1 haut, or cubit.
2 hauts		1 guz, or yard.

LAND MEASURE.

Land is measured by the haut, or cubit; 5 cubits long and 1 broad is 1 chattack.

16 chattacks	make	1 cottah.
20 cottahs.....		1 biggah.
30¼ biggahs.....		1 English acre.
40 biggahs		1 Madras cawney.

LIQUID MEASURE.

5 Sicca weights ..	make	1 chattack.
4 chattacks		1 pouah.
4 pouahs.....		1 seer.
40 seers		1 maund.

GRAIN MEASURE.

5 chattacks	make	1 konkee.
4 koonkees		1 raik.
4 raiks		1 pally.
20 pallies		1 soalle.
16 soalles		1 khahoon.

Note. 1 khahoon is 40 maunds.

LONG MEASURE.

3 grains	make	1 finger
4 fingers.		1 hand.
3 hands.....		1 span.
2 spans.....		1 arm, or cubit.
4 arms		1 fathom.
1000 arms		1 coss, or mile,

which is 1 English mile, 1 furlong, 3 poles, and 3½ yards.

FOR GOODS RECKONED BY TALE.

5 particulars.....	make	1 gunda.
4 gundas, or 20 particulars.		1 coorie, or 1 corge

COMMERCE OF BENGAL.

Bengal, with the adjacent allied provinces, far exceeds the other Presidencies in population, wealth, and rich productions for commerce, and is the attractive centre of the British power in the East. A constant, extensive, and profitable commerce is carried on from Bengal with all parts of India, with China, various parts of Europe, and America. About the year 1795, the East India Company appointed a reporter of external commerce at this Presidency, and particular instructions were given as to the mode of keeping the accounts; since which period a clear and comprehensive statement of the amount of the merchandise and treasure imported into, and exported from Bengal, has been annually made up and transmitted to Europe; together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted.

The commerce of this Presidency is arranged under the following heads, *viz.*

I. To and from London (exclusive of the East India Company's trade) comprehending the investments of the commanders and officers of the Company's ships; the goods shipped by individuals on the tonnage allowed by the Act of 33 Geo. III. chap. 52; and the cargoes of such country ships as have been permitted to proceed from Bengal to England, and return laden with European commodities.

II. To and from other parts of Europe, under the denomination of Foreign Europe, comprising Denmark, Hamburgh, Lisbon, Madeira, Cadiz, &c.

III. To and from the United States of America.

IV. To and from British Asia, which comprehended, in 1801, the under-mentioned places; and, notwithstanding the acquisitions which have since taken place, is continued under the same arrangement.

1. Coast of Malabar, which includes the whole of the western side of the Peninsula.
2. Coast of Coromandel, which includes the whole of the eastern coast.
3. Island of Ceylon.
4. Coast of Sumatra.

V. That to and from the under-mentioned places, comprehended in 1801, under the head of Foreign Asia: and though some of the places have since been added to the British possessions, the same arrangement is continued.

1. Arabian and Persian Gulfs.
2. Pegu.
3. Pinang, and places to the eastward.
4. Malacca.
5. Batavia.
6. Manilla.
7. China.
8. Various places.

Under the head of various places, are comprehended the Maldive and Laccadive Islands, Mosambique, and other ports on the East Coast of Africa, New South Wales, Cape of Good Hope, Saint Helena, &c.

The whole of the commerce from port to port in India, commonly called the country trade, is in the hands of individuals, the East India Company never interfering; and from the various statements, it will be seen, that there is no place of commercial note from the eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, to which a trade is not driven by the British or native merchants resident in the Company's territories, except Japan, to which country the East India Company, in the infancy of their establishment, made several unsuccessful attempts to establish a trade. For a long period, all European nations, except the Dutch, have been forbidden visiting Japan; notwithstanding which, a ship has recently been sent from Calcutta, but was unable to obtain permission to trade.

The accounts are made up in Sicca Rupees at all the Presidencies; and as the entries of both imports and exports are required to be verified on oath, the following statements may be considered accurate.

COMMERCE WITH LONDON.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Bengal from London, exclusive of the East India Company's, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Bengal to London during the same period; together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL FROM LONDON.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	35,90,683	12,63,387	48,54,070
1803	30,55,400	9,85,601	40,41,001
1804	29,34,485	7,97,680	37,32,165
1805	36,28,301	8,69,576	44,97,877
1806	59,12,500	5,68,921	64,81,421
Total.	191,21,369	44,85,165	236,06,534

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL TO LONDON.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	111,45,261	——	111,45,261
1803	108,15,545	——	108,15,545
1804	89,16,168	——	89,16,168
1805	60,99,065	——	60,99,065
1806	90,34,869	——	90,34,869
Total.	460,13,908	——	460,13,908

Articles of Import in 1805.

Books	Sicca Rupees	90,656
Boots and shoes		54,735
Cutlery and hardware		1,39,144
Copper		185
Carriages		1,16,218
Cordage		14,178
Glass, and looking-glasses		2,79,575
Hosiery		1,06,794
Haberdashery		95,448
Hats		80,629
Jewellery		28,630
Ironmongery		65,907
Millinery		97,746
Malt liquors		1,35,212
Oilman's stores		1,67,763
Perfumery		63,624
Provisions		16,444
Plate and plated ware		56,591
Piece-goods		67,792
Saddlery		1,32,827
Wines and spirits		7,87,265
Metals		1,03,775
Naval stores		55,693
Stationery		61,487
Woollens		1,15,580
Sundries		6,94,453
Treasure		8,69,576
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	44,97,877

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees	3,31,582
Indigo		45,23,124
Sugar		54,478
Raw silk		7,87,106
Cotton		1,18,912
Elephants' teeth		9,278
Gums		24,160
Ginger		2,750
Cossumba		4,815
Sal Ammoniac		2,680
Cutch		1,025
Shell-lac		12,139
Sundries		9,466
Imports re-exported, viz.		
Wine and liquors		55,176
Camphire		72,009
Spices		20,366
Cassia		24,983
Books		14,354
Cocculus Indicus		5,571
Coffee		4,676
Galls		2,320
Sundries		17,895
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	60,99,065

Merchandise imported from London, in 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees 191,21,369
Ditto exported to ditto	460,13,908
Exports exceed the imports	268,92,539
Treasure imported into Bengal from London during the same period	44,85,165
Balance *in favour* of Bengal in five years	Sicca Rupees 313,77,704

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £3,922,213; on an average of five years £784,442 12s. per annum.

EUROPEAN COMMODITIES SUITABLE TO THE BENGAL MARKET,

Taken from Indents received at various Periods, and which form the Investments of the Commanders and Officers of the Company's Ships, and the Cargoes of such Country Ships as have been permitted to load from London to Bengal.

ALE AND PORTER.

50 hogsheads pale ale
20 butts ditto
10 hogsheads porter
20 chests bottled ale
20 ditto porter
10 ditto brown stout

BOOKS AND PAMPHLETS.

2 quarto Bibles, elegantly bound in Morocco
2 ditto, neatly bound in calf
4 octavo Prayer-books to match the Bibles
2 Johnson's Dictionaries in 4to.
2 ditto ..... in 8vo.
2 Walker's Pronouncing Dictionaries in 4to.
2 ditto ..... in 8vo.
6 Sheridan's ditto
2 Buchan's Domestic Medicine
2 Willich's ditto
2 Taplin's Farriery
2 ditto Compendium
2 Sporting Dictionaries
Anquetil's Universal History
2 British Essayist, complete
Miss Burney's Novels, bound uniform
Miss Charlotte Smith's, ditto
2 Arabian Nights Entertainments, 12mo.
2 Foster's ditto ..... 8vo.
2 Scott's Persian Tales, 8vo.
2 Anacharsis's Travels, 8vo.
Robertson Charles V. } bound uniform
Ditto..... America. }
Ditto..... India. }
Ditto..... Scotland. }
2 Shakespeare's Works, 2 vols. large 8vo.
6 Hoyle's Games, last edition
2 Asiatic Annual Register, as far as published
Gibbon's Decline of the Roman Empire
2 Don Quixote, fine edition, with plates
2 Gil Blas, ditto
6 Public Characters, latest published
2 Sale's Koran
2 Colquhoun's Police of the Metropolis
2 ditto ..... Thames
2 Junius's Letters, 4to edition, with plates
2 Johnson's Works } bound uniform.
2 Fielding's Works }
2 Pope's Works }
2 Smollett's Works }
2 Relics of Ancient Irish Poetry
2 Walker's Irish Bards
2 Macpherson's Ossian
Encyclopædia Britannica, in Russia
Ditto ..... in calf
Langhorne's Plutarch, 8vo.
2 Hooper's Rational Recreations
2 Hutton's Philosophical ditto
2 Gladwin's Persian Moonshee.
2 Asiatic Researches, as far as published
2 Hume's History of England } uniform.
2 Smollett's Continuation ditto }
2 Adolphus's ditto }
Belsham's History of Great Britain
2 Briggs's, Glass's, and Farley's Cookery
2 Smith's Laboratory, 2 vols.
2 Sterne's Works, fine, new edition
2 Blair's Lectures
2 Elegant Extracts, Lectures, &c.
2 Pursuits of Literature
New and approved Novels.....£50
Children's Books 10

BLACKING AND BRUSHES.

5 gross blacking cakes, large and small
10 ditto balls
12 gross heel balls, large and small
10 dozen sets shoe brushes

BOOTS AND SHOES.

12 pair fashionable hunting boots
12 ditto military ditto
12 ditto hessian ditto
24 ditto half boots
24 ditto strong and neat wax leather shoes
2 dozen neat fashionable undress shoes
2 ditto dress shoes, for buckles
12 pairs gentlemen's red Morocco slippers
12 ditto ladies' kid slippers and sandals
24 ditto children's shoes, assorted

CONFECTIONARY.

12 six pound jars raspberry jam
3 ditto strawberries
3 ditto black currant jelly
3 ditto red ditto
3 ditto preserved green gages
3 ditto damsons
Same number of 3 lb. jars of each sort
12 decanters dried cherries
8 ditto carraway comfits
4 ditto almond ditto
4 ditto barberry ditto
6 dozen phials capillaire
8 ditto cherry brandy
4 ditto raspberry ditto

CHINTZ, MUSLINS, &c.

6 pieces fine chintz for furniture
6 ditto bordering, to match
6 ditto neat sprigs for ladies' gowns, &c.
12 fine large white counterpanes
12 pieces fine bed ticken
6 ditto fine white corduroy

CLOTHS, WOOLLENS, &c.

20 fashionable coat lengths best ladies' cloth
12 coat lengths best black ditto
2 pieces best superfine scarlet cloth
4 ditto blue ditto
1 ditto French grey ditto
2 ditto fine Bath coating
1 ditto green cloth for billiard tables
2 ditto green baize, middling quality
2 dozen large superfine blankets
1 ditto fine ditto for cots
2 ditto large size boat cloaks
1 ditto coats
2 pieces finest Welch flannel,
2 ditto middling ditto
1 ditto fine white cassimere
1 dozen warm waiscoat pieces

CARDS.

4 gross best Mogul cards in 2 boxes, each containing 2 gross, packed in tin
2 gross best Harry Cards.
12 dozen message cards, assorted.

CORKS.

100 gross best long velvet corks
100 ditto wine corks
100 gross best beer corks
20 cakes of corks for bungs, &c.

CUTLERY.

6 neat mahogany boxes, with locks, each
2 dozen table knives and forks
2 ditto dessert ditto
1 pair carvers
1 ditto with guard
1 cheese knife and steel
The handles of the best white ivory.
3 ditto, containing the same quantity of green handled knives, forks, &c.
12 wainscot boxes, each containing
1 dozen white ivory table knives and forks
1 ditto dessert ditto
1 pair carvers to match
1 cheese knife and steel, ditto
6 wainscot boxes, each containing the same quantity of black handled knives, forks, &c.
1 dozen strong handled pruning knives
2 ditto clasp pruning knives
1 ditto large stag handled carvers, guard forks
6 ditto ivory handled penknives
1 ditto well-finished sportsmen's knives
3 ditto penknives, 1 and 2 blades
3 ditto ladies' scissars in Morocco sheaths
1 ditto best, in silver ditto
1 ditto for cutting button-holes
1 ditto gum lancets, assorted
2 ditto good strong corkscrews
1 ditto pairs nut-crackers, plated handles
2 ditto boot-hooks
1 ditto pairs best razors, in Morocco cases
2 ditto tailors' scissars
6 ditto pocket knives assorted

CARPETING.

8 handsome bedside carpets, with fringe
2 pieces handsome carpeting
24 Hookah carpets, elegant patterns
Canvas, worsted, &c. for ladies' use.....£10

COPPER.

1 ton sheathing copper, middling thickness
10 cwt. ditto thick
10 cwt. copper bolts and fastenings
10 cwt. copper sheathing nails

EARTHEN WARE.

3 sets fine Queen's ware, each containing
3 soup tureens.
4 oval covered dishes
4 ditto dishes for hot water
20 dishes assorted
2 ditto with drainers for fish
2 salad dishes
2 pie ditto
6 dozen flat plates
4 ditto soup plates
3 ditto dessert ditto
3 ditto smaller ditto
4 pickle tureens
1 dessert centre piece
4 cream tureens
12 compotiers, assorted
1 ditto with elegant border containing the same
1 ditto with brown lines, ditto
1 dozen black figured tea-pots, neat shapes
1 ditto with silver spouts, and chains to lids
3 dozen fine Queen's ware fruit baskets and stands
3 ditto smaller ditto
24 ditto plain soup plates
48 ditto flat ditto
24 ditto dessert ditto
12 ditto dishes of different sizes
12 plain cream coloured dishes with reservoirs
6 dozen ditto hot water plates
1 ditto bowls, assorted
2 ditto jugs, ditto
6 handsome painted busons and jugs
6 elegant figured jasper hookah bottoms
12 pie dishes, 3 sizes
2 dozen plain beefsteak dishes with covers
2 ditto vegetable dishes to hold hot water
1 ditto salad bowls of sizes

ESSENCES.

6 dozen large pots essence of spruce
6 ditto small ditto

Neat portable boxes of essences of celery, marjoram, mint, thyme, &c.....£10

FURNITURE.

1 set solid mahogany dining tables
3 gentlemen's washhand stands, fitted up
2 ladies' ditto
2 ditto work-tables on claw feet
2 fashionable sofa tables on claw feet
12 strong and neat tea-chests, good locks
1 handsome bureau and bookcase
4 ditto card tables
2 ditto Pembroke tables, to match
6 handsome footstools, covered with Morocco
3 mahogany gentlemen's tool chests
6 wainscot ditto
12 writing desks, of sizes, brass clamps
3 black ebony ditto, strong and neat
2 solid mahogany wine coopers
4 cwt. boiled horse-hair
2 pair strong chests of drawers
The whole to be solid, and not veneered.

GLASS WARE.

2 dessert sets rich cut glass from £20 to £25
2 ditto ..... £25 to £30
2 ditto ..... £30 to £35
4 pairs elegant and rich cut butter dishes & covers
4 pairs less rich ditto
4 dozen richly cut jelly glasses
6 ditto neatly cut ditto
6 richly cut salad bowls, assorted sizes
4 pair ditto sugar urns with covers
4 pair ditto larger ditto
2 pair ditto milk-urns with covers
6 richly cut round bowls with covers
2 ditto on low square pedestals
2 plated liquor frames, each 4 neatly cut bottles
3 dozen deep blue finger basons, polished bottoms
3 ditto cut and fluted
3 ditto deep green ditto
3 ditto polished bottoms
Same quantity of Monteiths, as finger basons
12 dozen phials, assorted, ground stoppers
3 ditto neatly cut with ditto
2 ditto richly cut smelling bottles
6 pestles and mortars, of sizes
8 elegant hookah bottoms
2 deep green ditto
4 small table goorgoories, same as above
2 ditto green ditto
12 pair richly cut muffineers, silver tops
6 pair cut fluted quart decanters
3 ditto pint ditto, to match
4 ditto richer cut quart decanters
2 ditto pints, to match
24 pairs plain wall shades, plated brackets
24 spare shades for ditto
24 pairs best India table shades
2 ditto green ditto
8 ditto plain table shades, on handsome plated pedestals
8 ditto plated candlesticks, with shades, &c.
24 large vase hanging lamps, plated rings, &c
24 less ditto with ditto
12 extra vases for the above, 6 of each size
Same quantity of brass mounted vase lamps
A set of fashionable table glass ware, *viz.*
2 dozen finger basons
2 ditto wine coolers
2 ditto pint tumblers
2 ditto 3-gill square feet goblets
8 ditto claret glasses
8 ditto Madeira ditto
4 pair quart decanters
2 dozen cut flint wide mouth bottles for pickles
12 inches high, mouth 2 inches wide
2 ditto a size smaller
2 ditto neat ink and sand glasses
3 ditto hand-lanterns, 2 sizes

GROCERIES.

6 boxes best bloom raisins
2 cwt. new currants in kegs of 1 cwt.
12 jars pearl barley, each 6lbs.
6 ditto Scotch ditto, 6lbs.
12 canisters Jordan almonds, each 6 lbs.
6 jars Turkey figs, each 12lbs.
3 ditto French plums, ditto
24 lbs. best chocolate

GUNS AND PISTOLS.

2 double-barrelled fowling pieces, each in a mahogany case, with apparatus, &c.
4 single ditto, each in ditto
4 boxes spare shooting tackle
3 pairs best pistols, in mahogany cases
4 ditto plain and good pistols, in ditto
1000 best gun and pistol flints
Shot belts, powder flasks, &c.....£10

GUNPOWDER.

224 lbs. patent Gunpowder, best double glazed, in canisters, *viz.* 12 doz. each 1 lbs. and 5 doz. each 2 lbs. to be neatly labelled, and packed in japanned boxes, with locks and keys. The tin boxes in a wood case.

HATS.

6 dozen gentlemen's fashionable black round hats
6 ditto black plated ditto
6 finest and most fashionable ladies' ditto
3 dozen children's black beaver hats, assorted
1 ditto dark blue
1 ditto dark green

HABERDASHERY.

2 dozen ladies' fashionable straw hats & bonnets
1 ditto girls' ditto
24 pieces best black hair ribbon
12 gross thread shirt buttons
12 ditto fine tapes and bobbins, assorted
Thread, laces, and edgings.....£25
Black thread lace cloaks..... 20
Thread lace veils 25
Fashionable ribbons 20
Ditto artificial flowers 20

HOSIERY.

6 dozen gentlemen's silk hose, in half dozens
6 ditto best fashionable ditto
3 ditto ladies' ditto
6 ditto open work silk mits
2 ditto gloves
2 ditto gentlemen's best black silk hose
12 dozen gentlemen's fine elastic cotton hose
3 ditto ladies' ditto
6 ditto gentlemen's fine ditto, longer than usual
6 ditto ladies' very fine open-work mits
3 ditto single cotton night-caps
3 ditto double ditto

HOSIERY, FLEECY.

3 dozen men's large size fleecy stockings
2 ditto instep socks
2 ditto ankle ditto
1 ditto fleecy shirts
1 dozen pairs of fleecy drawers
2 ditto night-caps
6 pieces fleecy web, to cut up
6 dozen best Welch wigs

JEWELLERY.

12 pairs fashionable dress shoe buckles
12 ditto knee, to match
12 sets elegant mourning shoe and knee ditto
4 ditto blue ditto
4 dozen strong silver thimbles
1 ditto handsome scent boxes
6 fashionable necklaces and ear-rings
12 ditto brooches and pins
6 ditto ladies' watch-chains
12 strong gentlemen's gold ditto
12 pair ditto sleeve buttons
2 dozen strong silver pencil-cases

IRON AND IRONMONGERY.

20 tons iron, in flat and square bars
2 ditto iron hoops for butts and leagers
5 ditto steel in faggots
2 ditto iron plate, 4 to 5 plates to the cwt.
5 ditto nails assorted
12 cast iron treasure chests, 20 to 36 in. long
20 dozen portmanteau padlocks
10 cwt. butt rivets
40 dozen files, assorted
25 gross screws, different sizes
12 dozen H and HL hinges ditto
1 ditto spring rat traps

KITCHEN FURNITURE.

1 nest iron stewpans and covers
2 ditto saucepans ditto
6 large beef boilers, 3 sizes
6 ditto fish kettles, ditto
6 ham boilers, ditto
4 iron tea kettles, each 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 quarts
6 pairs of bellows with brass nozles
2 brass pestles and mortars
4 coffee mills
4 pepper ditto
1 dozen small hatchets
1 ditto shovels of sorts

LOOKING GLASSES.

4 looking glasses to match, 36 by 24 inches, in gold burnished pillar frames and panels
4 ditto same as above, 40 by 24
2 ditto .....32 by 20
6 handsome ladies' swing dressing glasses, *viz.*
2 each 40 by 24 in. } in mahogany
2 ditto 36 by 22 in. } frames, panelled
2 ditto 32 by 18 in. } to take apart.
6 ladies' toilette glasses, in mahogany frames
6 ditto with 3 drawers, locks and keys
12 dozen dressing glasses, in solid mahogany frames, half with sliders, *viz.*
3 dozen 12 by 14 inches
3 ditto 12 by 10 ditto
3 ditto 10 by 8 ditto
3 ditto 8 by 6 ditto
1 dozen concave mirrors, 6 to 10 inches
1 ditto convex ditto
1 pair elegant circular convex mirrors, framed, and ornamented with festoons, &c.

LEATHER BREECHES AND GLOVES.

1 dozen pairs best white doe skin pantaloons large size, with 2 plushes, and 6 balls each
1 ditto leather breeches, ditto
1 ditto broad buff belts, best leather
3 dozen thick doe skin riding gloves
3 ditto pairs Woodstock gloves
3 ditto York tan ditto
2 ditto ladies' Woodstock long gloves

LUSTRES.

1 pair 12 light lustres, plated furniture, with spare shades, ornaments, &c.
2 ditto 4-light ditto, with ditto
2 pairs 4-light girandoles, on square pedestals, richly cut and ornamented
2 pairs 2-light ditto

LINENS, CAMBRIC, &c.

10 pieces of fine Irish linen
6 ditto Irish sheeting, broad and fine
6 ditto Scotch ditto
10 pieces finest French cambrics
10 ditto, rather inferior
6 ditto finest white lawn,

LIQUORS.

36 half chests of claret, 12 half chests to be in magnums
12 half chests of port wine
6 half chests cider
6 half chests perry
12 ditto.....old hock
6 ditto.....vin de grave
3 ditto.....rum shrub

LEAD AND LEAD SHOT.

5 tons sheet lead, of usual thickness
2 ditto red lead, in kegs of 2 cwt.
1 ditto white ditto in ditto

Patent shot, one sort in a keg, *viz.*

No.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Cwt.	$\frac{3}{4}$	$\frac{3}{4}$	6	8	$\frac{6}{8}$	$\frac{6}{8}$	2	2	2	2

LACE AND BULLION.

40 bobbins gold thread
60 ditto silver ditto
1 dozen gold epaulets, full and large
2 ditto silver ditto
1 ditto large silk sashes
4 dozen full gold and silver bullion
1 ditto wing bullion
1 ditto gold tassels and cord
1 ditto silver ditto
Spare straps, crescents, bugles, &c.....£10

MATHEMATICAL INSTRUMENTS.

3 sun dials for the latitude of Calcutta
4 small sun dials in fish-skin cases
4 universal sun dials, brass mounted
2 ditto silver ditto, in fish-skin cases
4 silver pocket compasses in ditto
6 day and night telescopes, large size
1 dozen ivory thermometers
12 pairs handsome spectacles
12 fashionable opera glasses
12 ditto eye-glasses

MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS.

2 small solid mahogany piano-fortes
1 large ditto with additional keys, &c.
2 organs, flageolet sound, with 3 barrels
6 Potter's patent flutes, in boxes
6 German flutes with silver keys
2 hand organs, small, not too shrill
New published music.....£20
4 good violins, in strong cases
1 military band of music, consisting of
1 pair of concert horns
2 bassoons, with trumpet tops
1 pair of concert trumpets
1 ditto cymbals, and 1 serpent
1 ditto triangles, and 1 bass drum
16 clarionets, B, C, E, & F, & 1 tamborine
4 octave B and C flutes

MEDICINES.

6 chests, fitted up with medicines, as under
2 at £8 8s. each
2 at £6 6s. ditto
2 at £4 4s. ditto
2 dozen best bitters in a box
2 ditto Steer's Opodeldoc
2 ditto large bottles essence of peppermint
1 ditto quarts of spirits of wine
1 dozen bottles best red bark
3 ditto calcined magnesia
1 ditto concentrated tincture of bark
1 ditto Turlington's balsam
1 ditto pints Epsom salts
3 ditto Rochelle ditto
3 ditto Glauber ditto
6 ditto tasteless ditto

MAPS AND CHARTS.

2 sets of Kitchen's General Atlas, last edition
2 sets D'Anville's Ancient Geography
4 copies of Rennel's Bengal Atlas, last edition
3 ditto new Maps of India
2 ditto Maps of England on rollers
2 ditto Scotland, ditto
2 ditto Ireland, ditto
3 copies Horsburgh's Directions
1 latest edition of the Maps of France
2 Maps of the World on rollers
2 ditto Europe, ditto
2 ditto Asia, ditto
2 ditto Africa, ditto
2 ditto America, ditto
2 sets best edition of East India Charts
2 dozen most useful ditto, loose, such as Bay of Bengal, China Seas, &c.
Any new Maps or Charts of India.....£15

OILMAN'S STORES.

50 Yorkshire hams, round and plump
100 large pine cheeses, 6 in a box
1 dozen double Gloucester ditto
6 ditto best salad oil
3 ditto essence of oysters
6 ditto mushroom ketchup
6 ditto walnut ditto
6 ditto fish sauce
6 ditto lbs. best Durham mustard
3 half hhds. best white wine vinegar
12 kegs of tongues, 1 dozen in each
12 quarter cases of pickles, each to contain
2 squares anchovies
2 ditto artichoke bottoms
2 ditto capsicums
12 quarter cases, each to contain
1 square of girkins
1 ditto samphire
1 ditto walnuts
1 ditto caviar
2 ditto piccalilli
6 dozen best French olives

PERFUMERY.

12 dozen lbs. best violet hair powder
6 ditto pots Jamaica pomatum
1 ditto rose ditto
6 ditto best double distilled lavender water, in boxes of 6 bottles each
3 ditto sets of best ivory tooth brushes
2 ditto best hair brushes
3 neat japanned dressing cases
3 dozen ladies' fashionable tortoiseshell combs
1 ditto ornamented ditto
2 ditto eau de luce
2 ditto smelling salts
500 lbs. best Windsor soap, in cakes
2 dozen best ivory combs
3 ditto Ruspini's dentifrice
3 ditto tincture

PAINTERS' COLOURS.

2 cwt. dry verdigrease, in small kegs
4 kegs prepared black paint, in ditto
4 ditto green ditto
100 gallons linseed oil
25 ditto drying ditto
20 kegs dry white lead, each 28lbs.
20 ditto red lead ditto
3 ditto Prussian blue ditto
2 dozen painters' brushes
12lbs. King's patent yellow paint

PLATE AND PLATED WARE.

6 dozen fashionable silver table spoons
3 ditto dessert ditto
12 ditto tea ditto
3 silver soup ladles
3 ditto gravy spoons
12 ditto sauce ladles
6 ditto pint saucepans with covers
1 handsome service of silver, *viz.* tea-pot, coffee biggin, cream jug, and sugar bason
3 handsome mustard pots, spare glasses
2 pairs neat silver bracket candlesticks
6 silver children's corals
3 silver gilt ditto
3 pair plated table candlesticks
6 ditto bracket ditto
2 ditto neat curry dishes and covers
2 handsome plated liquor stands
2 ditto cruet frames
2 plated inkstands, cut glass bottles, &c.
1 dozen plated covers for tumblers

SHIP CHANDLERY.

6 dozen deep sea, and hand lead lines
12 ditto house-line, and marline, assorted
20 barrels of tar
10 kegs of black varnish
6 ship's brass screw pumps, complete
12 pieces broad red bunting
3 ditto white ditto
3 ditto blue ditto

STATIONERY.

2 reams superfine royal paper
4 ditto. .....medium ditto
6 ditto .....demy ditto
The above to be packed in quarter reams
20 reams thin foolscap, cut
20 ditto thick ditto, part gilt
5 ditto thin folio post, cut
5 ditto thick ditto
30 ditto thin 4to post, part gilt and black
30 ditto thick ditto, assorted
5 ditto bank 4to post, plain
20 ditto 8vo post assorted, part gilt
The above to be put up in half reams
2 reams best blotting paper
2 ditto glazed demy marble paper
100 sheets best white pasteboard
2 blank books, each 4 quires royal, in rough calf, ruled faint lines
4 ditto 4 quires medium ditto, plain
4 ditto 4 ditto demy, ditto
12 ditto 4 ditto foolscap, ditto
6 dozen japanned boxes mixed wafers
2 ditto black ditto
6 lbs. best black sealing wax
12 ditto red ditto
5000 large clarified quills
5000 ditto pens
12 dozen ink powders
6 ditto best black lead pencils
3 ditto slates with pencils
50 sheets best large parchment
3 dozen phials best japan ink

SADDLERY.

2 military saddles and bridles complete
4 hunting ditto and ditto
1 lady's side-saddle and bridle ditto
2 girls' ditto and ditto
12 black velvet hunting caps
6 green ditto
2 dozen strong postillion whips
2 ditto jockey whips, assorted
2 ditto strong heavy cutting whips
6 ditto hollycrop buggy whips
3 ditto buggy whips with spring tops
2 ditto hollycrop phaeton whips
6 dozen hunting whips, assorted
2 ditto brown leather heads and reins
12 pairs spring web girths
12 surcingles
12 sets curry combs, brushes, and sponges
3 complete sets of horse clothing
1 dozen neat saddle cloths
1 ditto body rollers
1 plated buggy harness, complete
2 sets of plated mounting for buggy harness
1 set ditto for phaeton ditto
2 pairs spare holsters for cavalry saddles

TIN WARE.

2 sets, each 12 oval japanned dish covers
6 sets ditto block tin ditto
6 japanned coffee biggins
6 ditto handsome spice boxes
4 ditto stills for distilling herbs
4 nests block tin saucepans and covers
2 ditto stewpans and ditto
4 tin tea kettles, each 4, 5, and 6 quarts
6 ditto coffee pots
12 ditto shaving pots

TRUNKS.

6 nests red Morocco ladies' trunks
6 ditto common brown leather ditto
3 nests Russia leather trunks
6 red Morocco boxes for papers, &c.

TURNERY, &c.

6 sets billiard balls, maces, queues, &c.
6 pair rackets
12 battledores
2 dozen best Sevenoaks cricket balls
2 dozen best racquet balls
2 leather backgammon boards, 18 inch. long
2 ditto..... 21 ditto
with men, boxes, and dice complete

WINDOW GLASS.

400 feet best crown glass, 10 by 8 inches
400 ditto.....12 by 9 ditto
400 ditto.....12 by 10 ditto
400 ditto.....14 by 10 ditto
400 feet best crown glass, 15 by 12 inches
400 ditto.....16 by 12 ditto
400 ditto.....18 by 14 ditto
400 ditto.....20 by 14 ditto

WATCHES.

2 best gentlemen's gold watches, capped, &c.
2 pairs ditto hunting watches
2 fashionable ladies' watches, chains, &c.
2 pairs silver hunting watches
3 ditto double gilt watches, with seconds
Watch glasses of different sizes.....£3

SUNDRIES.

Reeves's colours, in large boxes.....£30
Drawing paper, crayons, &c..... 30
Ladies' and gentlemen's pocket books 20
Snuff, a small assortment 10
Garden seeds, fresh and good..... £20
Children's toys, mostly tin..... 20
Irish provisions, in tierces 100
6 dozen Velno's Vegetable Syrup

REMARKS ON THE IMPORTS FROM LONDON.

The investments for Bengal must contain a large proportion of what is usually termed eatables and drinkables, viz. pale ale, porter, wine, cider, perry, cordials, spirits, hams, cheese, oilman's stores, groceries, confectionary, and many delicate perishable articles, which cannot sustain either the effects of a long protracted voyage, or that of the climate.

The hot season in Bengal sets in the beginning of March, when the feasting parties, balls, &c. of the cool season cease, and the residents seldom go abroad unless for necessary recreation in the mornings and evenings. This may be considered to last till the beginning of August. Ships arriving about this time, it being the first of the season, with fresh supplies, generally experience a good market; the old stock of goods of the former season being either expended, or lost their name and character. A sufficient supply now generally arrives for the demand until November, or the cool season; when the first arrivals of the season have lost their character, and a fresh importation for the Christmas festivities may answer the purposes of the importer. Vessels arriving in the interim have comparatively small chance of succeeding, whilst those arriving after Christmas, are seldom able to meet a market suitable to their expectations, or that will secure them from loss.

Thus the fluctuating, precarious, and perishable state of the Bengal markets, and those of India in general, is certainly eventually favourable to the consumption of the investments of the commanders, officers, and private traders, whether sold or not; for if the inhabitants do not consume, the climate soon does: hence it must constantly want a fresh supply; but care must be taken not to overstock the market at once.

The modes of disposing of European goods imported into Bengal are four, viz.

I. The importer may open a godown, or shop, for the purpose of retailing them to the inhabitants.

The disadvantages attending this mode, from high rent, wages of shopmen and sircars, trouble in retailing, collecting payment, and loss on the final close of the concern, are so great, that it seldom does or can answer the importer's purpose, unless he has an extensive acquaintance in the settlement.

II. They may be exposed for private sale, on commission, at an European warehouse.

The disadvantages of selling by private sale on commission, at the warehouse of an European shopkeeper, are great, both from the usual charge of ten per cent. commission on the amount of the sales, and likewise from the latter having almost invariably a counter interest to the sales of the importer, by having goods of the same species for sale on his own account, or a prospect of selling them by auction.

III. The importer may sell to the shopkeeper by private contract, on exhibiting his invoices, at so much per cent. advance, or discount on the prime cost, in full of all charges; the investments to be delivered in good and merchantable condition, in the opinion of the purchaser, otherwise to be liable to rejection. The current rupee to be taken at the exchange of 2s. 3d. each, which enhances the value of the Sicca rupee, commonly considered at 2s. 6d., to 2s. 7¼d. each, a loss of near 5 per cent. on the exchange; and bills to be taken at 3, 6, and 9, months, or 6, 9, and 12 months from the period of the final delivery of the goods, as the parties may agree.

This mode is preferable to any other, provided the markets are in any degree favourable; but there is this disadvantage attending it, the importer is placed almost entirely at the mercy of the purchaser: the latter may have agreed in the outset to take the whole of an investment, in order to get the goods he really wanted, and hence an anxiety to reject those he does not really want, if in the least injured. By doing so, he in general obtains them at his own prices; or if he keeps an auction room, which most of the European shopkeepers now do, he gets the rejected goods to sell by that mode, and which is generally part of the contract; he has therefore not only an opportunity of purchasing them at his own price, but has likewise a commission on the amount of sales for so doing. This readily accounts for the quantities of

goods rejected when sold by private contract, the loss on which absorbs the greater part, if not the whole of the expected profit of the contract when first entered into.

In the disposal of an investment by private contract, the following circumstances must be considered:—the loss on such articles as may be rejected; the loss on the exchange by taking the current rupee at 2s. 3d.; the mode of calculating the duties at the custom-house, which, instead of being levied on the value, at the rate of 2s. 6d. per Sicca rupee, ten Sicca rupees are reckoned to the pound sterling, by which an advance of 25 per cent. is added to the established duties; and the loss by the discount on the purchaser's bills, which on an average have from four to six months to run, and which discount is never less than one per cent. per month, if of short dates; but if long to run, 1½ per cent. per month, exclusive of the great risk the importers run, by taking bills at such long dates.

The charges on the import of investments from England, must generally be regulated by the proportion of bulky and perishable articles. The freight of the one, and the loss or damage on the other, are the prominent charges; they may with justice be estimated at 30 per cent. on an investment of extensive general assortment: the shopkeepers importing on their own account and risk, consider them to amount to near 40 per cent. including the commission charged in London.

Freight, as there are usually many bulky articles, is estimated at	5 per cent.
Premium of insurance, being generally shipped on Company's extra ships..	7 ditto
Convoy duty in England, on the prime cost.....	4 ditto
Commission in London on the gross amount of the invoices	5 ditto
Wastage on some articles, and damage on others, estimated at	2½ ditto
Import duties at Calcutta, according to the present mode of levying them	9 ditto
Expences of boat-hire, coolies, servants' wages, &c. estimated at	2½ ditto
Forming a total of	35 per cent.

The commanders and officers of the Company's regular ships may be considered exempt from the charge of freight, 1 per cent. of the premium of insurance, and a part of the commission of 5 per cent.

IV. The importer may sell his goods at the established outeries, or auction rooms.

The principal objection to this mode of sale is, that they are in general conducted by persons having also retail shops, so that they may be both buyers and sellers. Whoever has witnessed the rapidity with which goods are disposed of at the outeries, readily discovers how this mode of sale has become so favourite and profitable to the shopkeepers and proprietors of auction rooms, instead of purchasing by private contract, as formerly. By their combining both a retail shop and an auction room, and enjoying the benefits above stated, they will now rarely give by private contract to the importers of British goods, such an advance as can indemnify, far less adequately compensate them for the charges, damages, risks, &c. which attend their adventures.

On the renewal of the Charter in 1793, the private traders, both in London and India, embarked largely in the importation of European goods into India; but from various losses arising from the imports exceeding the demand, (more particularly in those years in which many Indian built ships were permitted to proceed to England, and return with cargoes), and the difficulty of obtaining any remittance exempt from loss and risk, they have in general declined it; it has therefore reverted back to the old mode of supply, by the private trade of the Company's officers.

The commanders and officers of the Company's ships visiting Bengal, usually employ a native dubash, or agent, who is frequently entrusted with the management of their investments, and is generally considered responsible for the goods sold either to the European or native shopkeepers, and for which a compensation is made; but they have no fixed rule of charging commission on either sales or purchases: it is therefore left to the discretion of their employers what allowance to make them.

COMMERCE OF BRITISH INDIA WITH LONDON.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into the British settlements from London, exclusive of the Company's commerce, in the years 1802 to 1806; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from the British settlements to London during the same period.

IMPORTS INTO BRITISH INDIA.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	64,44,531	21,35,503	85,80,034
1803	51,50,230	23,76,847	75,27,077
1804	51,89,623	18,79,372	70,68,995
1805	62,45,919	23,88,731	86,34,650
1806	91,35,966	14,91,236	106,27,202
Total.	321,66,269	102,71,689	324,37,958

EXPORTS FROM BRITISH INDIA.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	133,90,443	992	133,91,435
1803	142,35,030	——	142,35,030
1804	105,20,722	——	105,20,722
1805	73,75,766	——	73,75,766
1806	101,92,598	——	101,92,598
Total.	557,14,559	992	557,15,551

Merchandise imported into the British settlements in India from London, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive ..... Sicca Rupees 321,66,269
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto during the same period 557,14,559

Exports exceed the imports 235,43,290
Treasure imported into the British settlements from London during the same period 102,71,689
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto 992
102,70,697

Balance *in favour* of the British settlements ..... Sicca Rupees 338,18,987

Being in the following proportion to the different settlements.

In favour of Bengal	Sicca Rupees 313,77,704	which, at 2s 6d each, is	£3,922,213	0	0
In favour of Fort St. George	40,23,852	..... ditto	502,981	10	0
	354,01,556	..... ditto	£4,425,19	10	0
Against Bombay and Surat	15,82,569	..... ditto	197,821	2	6
Total	Sicca Rupees 338,18,987	..... ditto	£4,227,373	7	6

which, on an average of five years, is £845,474 13s. 6d. per annum.

REMARKS ON THE COMMERCE OF BRITISH INDIA WITH LONDON.

At the period of the Company's acquisition of territorial dominion in India, the number of British residents was small; they were confined solely to commercial pursuits: and the few moderate fortunes, which, in a slow course of years were to be remitted home, easily found a conveyance by Company's bills. The vast wealth which poured into the coffers of individuals upon the ascendency of the English power in India, at the same time that their number in consequence of this great change rapidly increased, soon overflowed the usual mode of remittance through the Company: in consequence of which, many of the fortunes acquired by individuals, were transmitted to Europe through foreign channels; and these being once opened to the remittance of British property, have ever since continued to serve in a greater or less

degree for the same end, though the modes have varied. Foreigners, at first, gave bills on Europe for the money advanced them in India, with which money they purchased the investments, and provided the funds for the payment of their bills; but in process of time, the British resident merchants not confining themselves solely to the original object of paper remittance, became clandestinely parties in the trade carried on to Foreign Europe, and at length, as is supposed, in many adventures the real, though concealed principals, so that they at length stood in the place where foreigners, who first received the fortunes of British subjects for bills on Europe, had stood: thus the trade of Foreign Europe from India was greatly carried on by British capital. Various prohibitions were consequently enacted, but they did not prevent the continuance of it. To remedy these abuses, was one professed object of the Act which renewed the Company's charter; and it proposed to do this, by abrogating the former prohibitory laws, and permitting British residents in India not only to act for foreigners, but to export from thence annually a certain quantity of goods in the Company's ships. By this last privilege it was intended to furnish a legal channel for the trade which the fortunes of British subjects carried on from India to Foreign Europe, by admitting that trade directly into the Thames. Individuals were thus admitted by law into a participation of the trading privileges of the East India Company, by being allowed to send goods for sale to England in the Company's ships.

Previous to the renewal of the Charter, the trade between England and India, and China, was in the strictest sense vested in the East India Company; and till the period of passing the Act in the year 1793, no British subject, either abroad or at home, could embark in it, except under the express permission of the Company, while the commerce of neutrals was wholly interdicted till the passing of a subsequent Act.

The commanders and officers of the ships employed in the Company's service, by an indulgence of ancient practice, are allowed to occupy a certain proportion of tonnage freight free, according to their respective ranks, the amount of which, on ships bound to India, is 96 tons outward, and 58 tons 32 feet homeward; and on the China ships 73 tons homeward: besides which, it is customary to allow the commander and officers on the homeward voyage, an additional quantity of 30 tons, as extra indulgence, to be stowed in parts of the ship wherein the Company's cargo is not permitted to be stowed; provided the commander has not refused any part of the goods intended to be shipped on the Company's account; or in the event of the ship not bringing her expected quantity of goods, satisfactory proof to be produced that the deficiency was not occasioned through any default of the commander or officers.

Every commander and officer must in a written application to the Court of Directors, specify the tonnage and value of the several articles he purposes to export in the above-stated indulgence. The estimated amount of those exports, founded on the quantity actually registered in the applications to the Court of Directors, in the years 1784 to 1791 inclusive, was as follows:

1784	£110,410	1788	£118,930
1785	139,280	1789	118,310
1786	153,340	1790	124,050
1787	122,490	1791	113,840

besides which, various articles are shipped on the victualling bill, with the provisions and ships' stores, and allowed as stores to the officers, the value of which is not included; but there is reason to believe that the above statement falls considerably short of the actual value of the goods exported.

In the year 1789, in consequence of the influx of European commodities into the British settlements, by vessels under the flags of Ostend, Tuscany, Genoa, Hamburgh, and other ports on the Continent of Europe, the markets were so overstocked, that goods might be purchased in India at half their original cost. The commanders and officers of the Company's ships therefore experienced very heavy losses; and on application to the different Governments in India, who were satisfied with the hardships of their case, the payment of the Company's duties on their outward investments was remitted.

The sale amount of the private trade of the commanders and officers at the Company's sales in London, during the above period, amounted to the under-mentioned sums, including the goods imported from China, which may be estimated to be at least £250,000 per annum of the amount.

1785–6	£611,205	1789–0	£838,484
1786–7	547,337	1790–1	930,930
1787–8	918,389	1791–2	709,450
1788–9	810,516	1792–3	703,578

making in the period of eight years, £6,069,889, which, after deducting the estimated amount of China goods, tea, nankeen, china-ware, drugs, &c. £250,000 per annum, leaves £4,069,889 for the sale value of India goods. This amount includes duties, as at this period the whole of the duties, whether on goods exported, or used at home, were paid by the Company, and drawn back on exportation.

The commanders and officers of the Company's ships frequently disposed of their tonnage to the merchants resident at the different Presidencies, who received their money, and granted bills at the rate of 2s. 4d. to 2s. 8d. per current rupee. In the exchange the freight and insurance were included, and it depended on the value remitted per ton, whether the freight was dear or cheap. The less the merchant drew for, the cheaper he obtained his freight. The bills were to be paid from the proceeds of the goods, and if the ship was lost, the obligation of payment was void.

By the Act of 1793, the quantity of tonnage to be furnished by the Company to individuals was fixed at 3,000 tons, subject to increase or decrease, under the direction of the Board of Controul. The rate of freight to be charged, was restricted, in time of peace, to £5 per ton outward, and £15 per ton homeward, to be augmented in time of war, in proportion to the increase paid by the Company.

The whole amount of goods imported into, and exported from the British settlements in India by individuals, in consequence of the facilities granted by the Company's charter, and of the goods imported by the commanders and officers of the Company's ships, previous to 1802, it is impossible to ascertain, except at Calcutta, where an account has been kept since the year 1795; by which it appears that the amount of the commerce carried on between London and that port, from 1795 to 1801, was as follows.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL FROM LONDON.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1795	17,91,625	4,81,538	22,73,163
1796	15,49,906	2,33,096	17,83,002
1797	11,88,045	3,46,176	15,34,219
1798	10,13,105	7,30,209	17,43,314
1799	31,10,596	16,36,405	47,47,001
1800	40,98,300	44,72,500	85,70,800
1801	36,51,600	3,24,000	39,75,600
Total.	164,03,175	82,23,924	246,27,099

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL TO LONDON.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1795	84,08,800	——	84,08,800
1796	50,79,310	——	50,79,310
1797	69,71,529	——	69,71,529
1798	41,07,834	——	41,07,834
1799	67,91,406	——	67,91,406
1800	84,87,300	——	84,87,300
1801	131,97,400	——	131,97,400
Total.	530,43,579	——	530,43,579

From the above statement it appears that the amount of merchandise imported into Bengal from London in the years 1795 to 1801 inclusive, was ..... Sicca Rupees 164,03,175
That the amount of merchandise exported from ditto to ditto was 530,43,579

Exports exceed the imports 366,40,404
Treasure imported into Bengal from London, during the same period 82,23,924

Balance *in favour* of Bengal ..... Sicca Rupees 448,64,328

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £5,608,041; on an average of seven years £801,148 12s. 6d. per annum.

The following is an account of the tonnage of goods exported to India, and imported from thence by individuals, exclusive of the commanders and officers of the Company's ships, in consequence of the Act of 1793, from that period to 1810; likewise the number of ships, and the tonnage of their cargoes imported from India; also the sale amount of goods imported by individuals from India, and of goods imported in the private trade of the commanders and officers from India during the same period.

Years.	Tonnage occupied outward.	Tonnage occupied homeward.	Ships from India.	Tonnage of their Cargoes.	Total of Tonnage in Privilege.	SALES OF GOODS IMPORTED.		
						Privilege Goods.	Private Trade.	Total.
	Tons.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	Tons.	£	£.	£
1794	—	—	—	—	—	181,710	441,929	623,639
1795	51	2,365	—	—	2,416	469,879	373,868	843,747
1796	31	4,395	1	485	4,911	409,787	458,541	868,328
1797	160	5,213	1	1,271	6,644	678,749	274,812	953,561
1798	488	3,841	—	—	4,329	646,747	293,160	939,907
1799	58	673	11	9,973	10,704	881,662	448,061	1,329,723
1800	287	8,154	3	2,369	10,810	1,747,139	370,808	2,117,947
1801	19	3,487	9	7,977	11,483	1,566,972	546,419	2,113,391
1802	372	2,075	11	8,604	11,051	1,734,217	268,427	1,992,644
1803	1,094	2,838	14	10,341	14,273	2,586,581	456,052	3,042,633
1804	1,503	6,665	1	785	8,953	1,860,734	315,303	2,176,037
1805	3,719	4,235	—	—	7,954	1,853,050	570,986	2,424,036
1806	2,582	2,534	1	565	5,681	1,722,972	728,110	2,451,082
1807	2,783	9,743	—	—	12,526	1,028,762	424,846	1,453,608
1808	2,306	4,201	—	—	6,507	1,931,685	617,876	2,549,561
1809	4,501	4,298	8	6,130	14,929	797,229	520,603	1,317,832
1810	1,789	5,727	9	8,280	15,796	1,129,408	433,275	1,562,683
Total.	21,743	70,444	69	56,780	148,967	21,217,283	7,543,076	28,760,359

From the above statement it appears that the private trade of the commanders and officers of the Company's ships has not been subject to much fluctuation; whilst the imports of individuals in privilege, allowed by the Act of 1793, including the cargoes of such country ships as have been permitted to load from the British settlements in India, increased very considerably from 1794 to 1803, when it was at its highest; since that period, from the limited demand for Indian goods on the continent of Europe, it has been continually on the decline, and at present scarce any article of Indian produce will realize the prime cost and the expences attending its importation.

The articles which composed the above amount of £28,760,359, were as follow:

Indigo	£15,903,075	Pepper	£435,134
Piece-goods	6,980,505	Saltpetre	920,777
Drugs, sugar, &c.	3,612,425	Coffee	189,497
Raw silk	1,211,081	Spices	107,865

but what proportion of each was imported in private trade, it is impossible to ascertain.

Previous to the passing the Act of 1793, the officers of the Company's ships paid a duty of 7 per cent.; but the 99th section of that Act reducing the duty to be paid them by individuals to 3 per cent. the Court of Directors put their officers on the same footing. The amount of the revenue derived by this charge of 3 per cent. was in the years 1794 to 1810 inclusive, £2,633,833; but this sum includes the duties payable to the Company on the teas and other commodities imported from China in the private trade of the commanders and officers.

COMMERCE WITH DENMARK.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Bengal from Denmark, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Bengal to Denmark during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	3,38,941	2,33,100	5,72,041
1803	3,17,372	69,495	3,86,867
1804	3,93,748	1,58,244	5,51,992
1805	1,87,647	6,08,834	7,96,481
1806	2,42,777	——	2,42,777
Total.	14,80,485	10,69,673	25,50,158

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	2,54,709	6,300	2,61,009
1803	5,04,619	——	5,04,519
1804	12,36,964	——	12,36,964
1805	6,51,308	——	6,51,308
1806	4,78,153	——	4,78,153
Total.	31,25,653	6,300	31,31,953

Articles of Import in 1805.

Brandy	Sicca Rupees 36,327
Cordage	23,434
Canvas	10,852
Claret	20,443
Cider	2,570
Copper and nails	2,367
Coffee	1,396
Geneva	13,158
Iron and steel	14,278
Spices	16,123
Wines	5,314
Oilman's stores	1,927
Piece-goods	2,135
Sundries	37,323
Merchandise	1,87,647
Treasure	6,08,834
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 7,96,481

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees 3,37,632
Sundries	3,13,676
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 6,51,308

Value of merchandise imported into Bengal from Denmark, in five years, 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees 14,80,485
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto	31,25,653
Exports exceed the imports	16,45,168
Treasure imported during the same period	10,69,673
Ditto exported	6,300
	10,63,373
Balance in *favour* of Bengal, in five years	Sicca Rupees 27,08,541

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £338,567 12s. 6d. on an average of five years, £67,713 10s. 6d. per ann.

COMMERCE WITH LISBON.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Bengal from Lisbon, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Bengal to Lisbon during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	5,26,035	10,40,709	15,66,744
1803	3,39,407	19,56,484	22,95,891
1804	4,12,994	11,20,061	15,33,055
1805	4,29,263	18,13,856	22,43,119
1806	6,76,326	15,33,295	22,09,621
Total.	23,84,025	74,64,405	98,48,430

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	26,59,588	——	26,59,588
1803	24,66,343	——	24,66,343
1804	25,59,338	——	25,59,338
1805	13,96,343	——	13,96,343
1806	13,94,867	——	13,94,867
Total.	104,76,479	——	104,76,479

Articles of Import in 1805.

Goa paper	Sicca Rupees	14,452
Lisbon wine		1,18,079
Madeira wine		2,70,000
Port wine		13,188
Sundries		13,544
Treasure		18,13,856
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	22,43,119

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees	12,13,353
Indigo		1,52,227
Grain		18,000
Sundries		93
Imports re-exported		12,668
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	13,96,343

Merchandise imported into Bengal from Lisbon in five years, 1802 to 1806	Sicca Rupees	23,84,025
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		104,76,479
Exports exceed the imports		80,92,454
Treasure imported into Bengal during the same period		74,64,405
Balance *in favour* of Bengal in five years	Sicca Rupees	155,56,859

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £1,944,607 7s. 6d. on an average of five years, £388,921 9s. 6d.

COMMERCE WITH HAMBURGH.

In the year 1804 there was imported into Bengal, by one ship from Hamburgh, merchandise to the amount of	Sicca Rupees	2,018
Merchandise exported from Bengal to Hamburgh		1,60,047
Exports exceed the imports		1,58,029
Treasure imported from Hamburgh into Bengal in 1804		1,90,275
Balance *in favour* of Bengal	Sicca Rupees	3,48,304

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £43,538, on an average of five years, £8,707 12s. per annum. The exports consisted of piece-goods, indigo, and sugar.

COMMERCE WITH CADIZ.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Bengal from Cadiz, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Bengal to Cadiz during the same period.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	2,341	4,29,660	4,32,001
1803	37,801	11,340	49,141
1804	23,546	4,45,050	4,68,596
1805	——	——	——
1806	——	——	——
Total.	63,688	8,86,050	9,47,738

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	4,35,286	——	4,35,286
1803	20,810	——	20,810
1804	4,93,134	——	4,93,134
1805	——	——	——
1806	——	——	——
Total.	9,49,230	——	9,49,230

Merchandise imported into Bengal from Cadiz in the above five years	Sicca Rupees	63,688
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		9,49,230
Exports exceed the imports		8,85,442
Treasure imported into Bengal from Cadiz during the same period		8,86,050
Balance *in favour* of Bengal	Sicca Rupees	17,71,592

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £221,440, on an average of five years, £44,289 16s. per annum.

COMMERCE WITH FOREIGN EUROPE.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Bengal from various parts of Foreign Europe, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Bengal to various parts of Foreign Europe during the above period.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	8,67,317	17,03,469	25,70,786
1803	6,94,580	20,37,319	27,31,899
1804	8,32,306	19,13,630	27,45,936
1805	6,16,910	24,22,690	30,38,600
1806	9,19,103	15,33,295	24,52,398
Total.	39,30,216	96,10,403	135,40,619

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	33,49,583	6,300	33,55,883
1803	29,91,672	——	29,91,672
1804	42,91,581	——	42,91,581
1805	22,05,553	——	22,05,553
1806	18,73,020	——	18,73,020
Total.	147,11,409	6,300	147,17,709

Merchandise imported into Bengal from various parts of Foreign Europe	Sicca Rupees	39,30,216
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		147,11,409
Exports exceed the imports		107,81,193
Treasure imported into Bengal from various parts of Foreign Europe	96,10,403	
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto	6,300	
		96,04,103
Balance *in favour* of Bengal	Sicca Rupees	203,85,296

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £2,548,162, on an average of five years, £509,632 8s. per annum.

COMMERCE OF FOREIGN EUROPE WITH ALL PARTS OF BRITISH INDIA.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into the British settlements in India from all parts of Foreign Europe, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Bengal to all parts of Foreign Europe during the same period.

IMPORTS INTO THE BRITISH SETTLEMENTS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	15,34,510	22,12,027	37,46,537
1803	11,81,908	40,63,098	52,45,006
1804	17,01,802	33,67,537	50,69,339
1805	12,49,453	33,22,570	45,72,023
1806	15,24,264	24,18,144	39,42,408
Total.	71,91,937	153,83,376	225,75,313

EXPORTS FROM THE BRITISH SETTLEMENTS.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	40,04,288	6,300	40,10,588
1803	35,23,180	——	35,23,180
1804	49,81,888	——	49,81,888
1805	27,70,404	——	27,70,404
1806	24,21,788	——	24,21,788
Total.	177,01,548	6,300	177,07,848

Merchandise imported into the British settlements from various places in Foreign Europe, in five years, 1802 to 1806 inclusive ..... Sicca Rupees 71,91,937
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto 177,01,548

Exports exceed the imports 105,09,611
Treasure imported into the British settlements 153,83,376
Ditto exported from ditto 6,300
153,77,076

Balance in *favour* of the British settlements ..... Sicca Rupees 258,86,687

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £3,235,835 17s. 6d. on an average of five years, £647,167 3s. 6d. per ann.

Being in the following proportions to the different Presidencies:

Bengal	Sicca Rupees 203,85,296	which, at 2s. 6d. each, is	£2,548,162 0 0
Fort St. George and its dependencies	21,16,193	ditto	264,524 2 6
Bombay and Surat	33,85,198	ditto	423,149 15 0
Total	Sicca Rupees 258,86,687	ditto	£3,235,835 17 6

REMARKS ON THE COMMERCE OF FOREIGN EUROPE WITH BRITISH INDIA.

Several of the European nations had commercial rights and establishments in parts of Hindostan, at present under the East India Company's government, long before any territorial power was acquired there; and they have ever since been exercised by the subjects and flags of those nations, except as the fate of war has, in particular instances, suspended or extinguished them. The Company's acquisition of territorial power, though they did not employ it to divest foreigners of their privileges, brought them, however, gradually into more dependence upon the English for the provision of their investments; so that at length, finding at Bengal particularly, a greater facility in transacting their business at our settlements than at their own, some of them began to bring their ships directly to our ports, by which their dependence on the English was increased: and as the duties on their goods, with their expenditure whilst in harbour, centered in Calcutta, it was therefore good policy to encourage them in this practice. About this time (some years

after the peace of 1782), the ships of several states which had no settlements in India, as the Americans, Tuscans, and Genoese, began to resort thither, particularly to Bengal; and as they might, if refused admittance into the English settlements, have proceeded to those of the French, Dutch, Danes, or Portuguese, the same policy which recommended the admission of the flags of these powers, was extended to those of other friendly countries. The French, Dutch, and Danish possessions having since fallen into our hands, besides an increased foreign resort to our other ports, Calcutta has therefore become the seat of almost the whole export trade of Bengal.

In 1797, the British legislature, (notwithstanding the Navigation Act reserved the trade of the English settlements in Asia, Africa, and America, to the people of Great Britain and Ireland), thought it expedient that the vessels belonging to countries in amity with us, should be allowed, under certain restrictions, to import into, and export from, the British territories in India, any goods permitted by the Directors of the East India Company, who were required by the Act to frame a set of regulations for the trade of friendly Foreigners, such as might be most conducive to the prosperity of the British possessions in India, and at the same time consistent with the treaties with foreign nations, and with the Acts of Parliament for regulating the trade of India.

It is impossible to ascertain the whole amount of goods imported into and exported from the British settlements by Foreigners since the commencement of the war in 1793; but at Calcutta an account has been kept since the year 1795, from which it appears that the commerce carried on with all parts of Foreign Europe to and from that port in the years 1795 to 1801 inclusive, was as follows:

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1795	15,42,933	9,09,577	24,52,510
1796	6,77,782	4,43,170	11,22,952
1797	2,03,545	7,42,489	9,46,034
1798	3,85,299	4,54,878	10,38,177
1799	6,42,885	51,02,313	57,45,198
1800	7,10,800	12,81,000	19,91,800
1801	3,17,600	9,77,000	12,94,600
Total.	46,78,844	99,12,427	145,91,271

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1795	47,32,545	——	47,32,545
1796	32,92,191	——	32,92,191
1797	18,58,133	——	18,58,133
1798	11,43,140	——	11,43,140
1799	43,92,162	——	43,92,162
1800	27,72,700	——	27,72,700
1801	16,91,400	——	16,91,400
Total.	197,92,273	——	197,92,273

Merchandise imported into Bengal from Foreign Europe in seven years ..... Sicca Rupees	46,78,844
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto	197,92,273
Exports exceed the imports	150,83,429
Treasure imported into Bengal from Foreign Europe during the same period	99,12,427
Balance *in favour* of Bengal ..... Sicca Rupees	249,95,856

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £3,124,482, on an average of seven years, £446,354 11s. per annum.

To the British settlements the trade carried on by Foreigners from Europe is very beneficial, as the greater part of their imports consists of treasure, and the few remaining articles do not materially interfere with the trade carried on by individuals, or the East India Company. Their returns are made in the manufactures of the country, and it appears, from the foregoing statements, that the balance of this trade in favour of Bengal, has, upon an average of twelve years, amounted nearly to half a million sterling per annum, exclusive of duties, &c. and the benefits arising to the British merchants resident at Calcutta, who are the principal agents in the transaction of all foreign business.

COMMERCE WITH THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Bengal from the United States of America in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Bengal to the United States of America during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	4,23,943	47,32,088	51,56,031
1803	2,49,507	42,63,133	45,12,640
1804	4,31,136	34,92,181	39,23,317
1805	10,89,904	49,78,006	60,67,910
1806	16,07,642	93,85,328	109,92,970
Total.	38,02,132	268,50,736	306,52,868

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	48,18,897	43,230	48,62,147
1803	66,70,800	89,258	67,60,058
1804	33,44,593	——	33,44,593
1805	62,78,055	——	62,78,055
1806	90,27,472	——	90,27,472
Total.	301,39,817	1,32,508	302,72,325

Articles of Import in 1805.

Arrack and rum	Sicca Rupees	1,137
Brandy and cherry brandy		3,58,364
Claret and port wine		56,818
Coffee		3,893
Geneva		64,391
Metals		1,00,704
Madeira wine		2,41,194
Cape wine		42,201
Timber and plank		39,833
Spices		55,687
Oil and oilman's stores		12,588
Piece-goods		25,096
Broad cloth		2,630
Sundries		85,368
Merchandise		10,89,904
Treasure		49,78,006
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	60,67,910

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees	47,63,132
Indigo		2,13,890
Sugar		11,09,261
Cotton		48,592
Ginger		13,511
Hemp, flax, and twine		13,051
Canvas and gunnies		22,810
Sundries		19,552
Imports re-exported, viz.		
Pepper		2,730
Drugs		306
Coffee		10,311
Sundries		909
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	62,78,055

Merchandise imported into Bengal from America in five years	Sicca Rupees	38,02,132
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		301,39,817
Exports exceed the imports		263,37,685
Treasure imported into Bengal from America during the above period		268,50,736
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		1,32,508
		267,18,228
Balance *in favour of* Bengal in five years	Sicca Rupees	530,55,913

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £6,631,989 2s. 6d. on an average of five years, £1,326,397 16s. 6d. per ann.

COMMERCE OF AMERICA WITH ALL PARTS OF BRITISH INDIA.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into the British settlements in India from the United States of America, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from the British settlements in India to the United States of America during the same period; together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO BRITISH INDIA FROM AMERICA.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	4,85,265	50,55,463	55,40,728
1803	2,78,658	52,00,540	54,79,198
1804	6,50,497	42,54,049	49,04,546
1805	15,84,077	71,04,282	86,88,359
1806	19,38,466	97,83,180	117,21,646
Total.	49,36,963	313,97,514	363,34,477

EXPORTS FROM BRITISH INDIA TO AMERICA.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	52,47,240	43,250	52,90,490
1803	69,21,366	89,258	70,10,624
1804	36,98,794	——	36,98,794
1805	77,15,211	——	77,15,211
1806	101,20,989	21,668	101,42,657
Total.	337,03,600	1,54,176	338,57,776

Articles of Import in 1805.

Arrack and rum	Sicca Rupees	16,214
Brandy and cherry brandy		6,60,423
Claret and port wine		87,529
Cider		332
Coffee		3,893
Gin		80,121
Cordage		1,780
Metals		1,44,049
Madeira wine		2,91,162
Cape wine		42,201
Timber and plank		39,833
Spices		35,687
Oil and oilman's stores		14,299
Piece-goods		25,096
Broad cloth		2,630
Sundries		1,18,828
Merchandise		15,84,077
Treasure		71,04,282
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	86,88,359

Articles of Export, in 1805.

Piece goods	Sicca Rupees	60,43,576
Indigo		2,13,890
Sugar		11,09,261
Cotton		1,18,592
Camphire		6,416
Ginger		13,511
Seeds		1,000
Hemp, flax, and twine		13,051
Canvas and gunnies		22,810
Sundries		25,037
Imports re-exported, viz.		
Pepper		19,566
Tea		7,310
Alum		15,755
Drugs		3,218
Coffee		13,675
Oils		3,900
Rice		6,598
Sundries		18,045
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	77,15,211

Merchandise imported into the British settlements in India from the United States of America in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees	337,03,600
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		49,36,963
Imports exceed the exports		287,66,637
Treasure imported from the United States during the same period		313,97,514
Ditto exported to ditto		1,54,176
		312,43,338
Balance in *favour* of the British settlements	Sicca Rupees	600,09,975

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £7,501,246 17s. 6d. on an average of five years, £1,500,249 7s. 6d. per ann.

Being in the following proportion to the different settlements:

Bengal	Sicca Rupees	530,55,913	which at 2s. 6d. each, is	£6,631,989	2 6
Fort St. George and its dependencies		62,25,643	ditto	778,205	7 6
Bombay and Surat		7,28,419	ditto	91,052	7 6
Total	Sicca Rupees	600,09,975	ditto	£7,501,246	17 6

COMMERCE OF AMERICA WITH THE BRITISH SETTLEMENTS IN INDIA.

The Americans, immediately on their independence being acknowledged by Great Britain, began to fit out vessels, and embark in the East India and China trade. Their legislature passed a law, conferring several privileges upon every person who should annually import goods from Africa or Asia, of the value of not less than £3,000. They obtained from the French Government permission to dispose of their cargoes of American produce at the Mauritius, and to load with the commodities of the Islands, or those of the East Indies and China in return. In 1784 the first vessel arrived from India at New York with a cargo. In 1788, during Lord Cornwallis's government of India, orders were issued that American vessels should be treated at the Company's settlements in all respects as the most favoured foreigners; and with a view to their encouragement, the ship Chesapeak, the first American that was permitted to trade, was moreover favoured by the Supreme Council of Bengal with an exemption from the Government customs.

The inhabitants of the United States thus obtaining the produce of the East Indies so much cheaper by a direct intercourse, than they possibly could by the circuitous route of Europe, their commerce gradually increased. Their outward cargoes consisted of a few coarse goods, some wines, and spirits, and the remainder of dollars. The following is the official value of the exports of merchandise from America to India in the years 1790 to 1793 inclusive, taken from papers presented to Congress at different periods.

1790	American Dollars 135,181	1792	American Dollars 320,000
1791	318,628	1793	253,131

By the laws of the United States, the commerce with the Cape of Good Hope, and countries beyond it, is limited to particular ports; but is open to all its subjects.

A treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation was concluded between his Britannic Majesty and the United States of America, dated November 19, 1794, of which the following are extracts:—

"Article XIII. His Majesty consents that the vessels belonging to the citizens of the United States of America, shall be admitted and hospitably received in all the seaports and harbours of the British territories in the East Indies; and that the citizens of the United States may freely carry on a trade between the said territories and the said United States, in all articles of which the importation or exportation respectively to or from the said territories shall not be entirely prohibited, provided only that it shall not be lawful for them in time of war between the British Government and any other power or state whatever, to export from the said territories, without the special permission of the British Government there, any military stores, or naval stores, or rice. The citizens of the United States shall pay for their vessels, when admitted into the said ports, no other or higher tonnage duty than shall be payable on British vessels when admitted into the ports of the United States; and they shall pay no other or higher duties or charges on the importation or exportation of the cargoes of the said vessels, than shall be payable on the same articles when imported or exported in British vessels: but it is expressly agreed, that the vessels of the United States shall not carry any of the articles exported by them from the said British territories, to any port or place, except to some port or place in America, where the same shall be unladen, and such regulations shall be adopted by both parties as shall from time to time be found necessary to enforce the due and faithful observance of this stipulation."

"It is also understood that the permission granted by this article is not to extend to allow the vessels of the United States to carry on any part of the coasting trade of the said British territories; but vessels going with their original cargoes, or part thereof, from one port of discharge to another, are not to be considered as carrying on the coasting trade. Neither is this article to be construed to allow the citizens of the said States to settle or reside within the said territories, or to go into the interior parts thereof, without the permission of the British Government established there; and if any transgression should be attempted against the regulation of the British Government in this respect, the observance of the same shall and may be enforced against the citizens of America in the same manner as against British subjects, or others transgressing the same rule. And the citizens of the United States, whenever they arrive in any port or harbour in the said territories, or if they should be permitted in manner aforesaid to go to any other place therein, shall always be subject to the laws, government, and jurisdiction, of whatever nature, established in such harbour, port, or place, according as the same may be. The citizens of the United States may also touch for refreshments at the island of St. Helena, but subject in all respects to such regulations as the British Government may from time to time establish there."

From the period the above treaty was made, to the year 1802, the commerce carried on with Bengal was as under. Of that carried on with the other Presidencies, it is impossible to obtain any information that can be considered accurate, but it is supposed to be comparatively of small extent.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL FROM AMERICA.

Years.	Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1795	3,54,770	4,88,348	8,43,118
1796	4,41,389	11,06,384	15,49,773
1797	5,28,897	7,11,211	10,40,108
1798	6,74,312	10,99,960	13,40,272
1799	8,58,817	29,65,797	35,24,614
1800	8,99,900	40,75,800	49,75,700
1801	6,68,300	37,14,100	43,82,400
Total.	35,23,385	141,32,900	176,56,285

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL TO AMERICA.

Years.	Merchandize.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1795	19,40,319	——	19,40,319
1796	25,60,267	——	25,60,267
1797	20,25,592	——	20,25,592
1798	11,89,342	——	11,89,342
1799	37,85,937	——	37,85,937
1800	61,06,700	——	61,06,700
1801	43,53,800	——	43,53,800
Total.	221,83,167	——	221,83,167

Merchandise imported into Bengal from America, in seven years ..... Sicca Rupees	35,23,385
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto	221,83,167
Exports exceed the imports	186,59,782
Treasure imported from the United States of America during the same period	141,32,900
Balance *in favour* of Bengal in seven years ..... Sicca Rupees	327,92,682

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £4,099,085 5s. on an average of seven years £585,583 12s. per annum.

Of the above amount of exports, Sicca Rupees 183,27,430 consisted of piece-goods; Sicca Rupees 26,71,160 of sugar; and the remainder of various articles, viz. saltpetre, cotton, indigo, drugs, &c.

The commerce carried on by the Americans with the British settlements in India, has been gradually increasing, which is owing to the facilities granted them by treaty between the two Governments in 1794, to the belligerent state of Europe since that period, and, above all, to the neutral character they have possessed, which has enabled them to navigate more cheaply and expeditiously, as well as more safely, than the English merchant or East India Company could, and to supply many parts of the European Continent and South America, to which English ships have not had access; to these may be added the increase of the consumption of eastern commodities amongst themselves. These advantages, with that of their speaking the same language, and their social intercourse in the British settlements, render them the most formidable rivals of the English in the trade with the East Indies.

COMMERCE WITH THE COAST OF MALABAR.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Bengal from the Coast of Malabar, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Bengal to the Coast of Malabar during the same period; together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	8,71,026	8,400	8,79,426
1803	4,89,245	78,790	5,68,035
1804	3,53,594	——	3,53,594
1805	1,79,413	——	1,79,413
1806	1,38,452	1,66,266	3,04,718
Total.	19,91,730	2,53,456	22,45,186

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	33,50,690	——	33,50,690
1803	31,87,854	——	31,87,854
1804	37,95,196	——	37,95,196
1805	53,60,781	——	53,60,781
1806	50,18,260	——	50,18,260
Total.	227,10,781	——	227,10,781

Articles of Import in 1805.

Horses	Sicca Rupees 44,800
Tea	19,780
Lametta	11,975
Nankeens	9,350
Red and white lead	7,713
Gunpowder	2,915
Beads	4,545
Coir and coir cables	15,214
Coral	17,188
Piece-goods	721
Liquors	5,900
Timber	6,040
Sundries	33,272
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 1,79,413

Articles of Export in 1805

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees 13,65,093
Indigo	1,01,422
Sugar	13,50,493
Raw-silk	16,38,652
Grain	3,88,990
Bengal rum	1,20,133
Opium	15,515
Saltpetre	3,900
Ginger	42,176
Canvas and gunnies	72,165
Long pepper and root	38,586
Hemp, flax, and twine	12,384
Turmeric	16,392
Seeds	22,457
Carriages	27,000
Stick-lac and shell-lac	6,567
Sundries	41,273
Imports re-exported, viz.	
Liquors	20,365
Madeira wine	18,000
Spices	11,695
Woollens	1,280
Sundries	46,233
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 53,60,781

Merchandise imported into Bengal from the Coast of Malabar, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive ..... Sicca Rupees 19,91,730
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto 227,10,781

Exports exceed the imports 207,19,051
Treasure imported from the Coast of Malabar during the above period 2,53,456

Balance in *favour* of Bengal ..... Sicca Rupees 209,72,507

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £2,621,563 7s. 6d. or on an average of five years, £524,312 15s. 6d. per ann.

COMMERCE WITH THE COAST OF COROMANDEL.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Bengal from the Coast of Coromandel, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported to the Coast of Coromandel during the same period; together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	9,47,405	43,950	9,91,353
1803	8,88,237	72,420	9,60,657
1804	6,56,210	1,101	6,57,311
1805	8,95,133	31,789	9,26,922
1806	8,60,227	3,86,130	12,46,357
Total.	42,47,210	5,35,390	47,82,600

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	24,52,546	11,48,232	36,00,778
1803	25,74,146	——	25,74,146
1804	25,29,672	——	25,29,672
1805	24,10,253	——	24,10,253
1806	44,50,872	——	44,50,872
Total.	144,17,489	11,48,232	155,65,721

Articles of Import in 1805.

Brandy and Cherry Brandy..Sicca Rupees	37,399
Beetle-nut	17,588
Broad cloth	46,148
Copper and nails	1,37,536
Chanks	2,00,637
Piece-goods	1,15,390
Timber and plank	54,325
Teas	15,402
Sandal-wood and oil	25,561
Red-wood	26,884
Metals	22,952
Spices	25,881
Red and white lead	17,604
Wine and liquors	17,936
Drugs	33,029
Naval stores	31,249
Nankeens	10,582
Sundries	59,030
Treasure	31,789
Imports in 1805 ..... Sicca Rupees	9,26,922

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods ..... Sicca Rupees	4,07,942
Sugar, sugar-candy, and jaggery	1,43,926
Raw silk	4,16,942
Grain	10,38,658
Rum	7,991
Opium	61,968
Saltpetre	4,373
Ginger	26,509
Long pepper and root	39,181
Seeds	71,651
Canvas and gunnies	27,295
Carriages	15,510
Hemp, flax, and twine	7,492
Wax and tallow candles	10,415
Drugs	10,635
Cow-tails	6,298
Sundries	46,039
Imports re-exported, viz.	
Broad cloth	7,522
Pearls and diamonds	15,001
Tincal	6,400
Wines and liquors	2,895
Metals	4,486
Beads	4,537
Drugs	4,270
Sundries	22,317
Exports in 1805 ..... Sicca Rupees	24,10,253

Merchandise imported into Bengal from the Coast of Coromandel, in 1802 to 1806..Sicca Rupees 42,47,210
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto 144,17,489

Exports exceed the imports 101,70,279
Treasure imported into Bengal during the above period 5,35,390
Ditto exported from ditto 11,48,232
6,12,842

Balance *in favour* of Bengal in five years ..... Sicca Rupees 95,57,437

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £1,194,679 12s. 6d. on an average of five years, £238,935

COMMERCE WITH THE ISLAND OF CEYLON.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Bengal from the Island of Ceylon, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Bengal to the Island of Ceylon during the same period; together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	——	——	——
1803	——	——	——
1804	32,288	——	32,288
1805	97,913	1,50,435	2,48,348
1806	1,20,752	——	1,20,752
Total.	2,50,953	1,50,435	4,01,388

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	——	——	——
1803	——	——	——
1804	2,15,028	18,000	2,33,028
1805	4,00,073	——	4,00,073
1806	5,81,238	——	5,81,238
Total.	11,96,339	18,000	12,14,339

Articles of Import in 1805.

Coir, and coir cables ..... Sicca Rupees	47,609
Pepper	4,817
Copper	26,074
Coffee	5,584
Sundries	13,229
Treasure	1,50,435
Imports in 1805 ..... Sicca Rupees	2,48,348

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods ..... Sicca Rupees	1,03,994
Raw-silk	3,852
Grain	2,20,895
Sugar	10,799
Long pepper	5,131
Salt provisions	13,662
Canvas and gunnies	2,448
Ginger	2,419
Wax candles	3,106
Boots and shoes	4,654
Sundries	9,282
Imports re-exported, viz.	
Liquors	15,349
Broad cloth	1,188
Glass ware	317
Sundries	2,885
Exports in 1805 ..... Sicca Rupees	4,00,073

Merchandise imported into Bengal from the Island of Ceylon in five years ..... Sicca Rupees		2,50,953
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		11,96,339
Exports exceed the imports		9,45,386
Treasure imported from Ceylon during the same period	1,50,435	
Ditto exported to ditto	18,000	
		1,32,435
Balance *in favour* of Bengal in five years ..... Sicca Rupees		10,77,821

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £134,727 12s. 6d. on an average of five years, £26,945 10s. 6d. per ann.

COMMERCE WITH THE COAST OF SUMATRA.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Bengal from the Coast of Sumatra in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Bengal to the Coast of Sumatra during the same period; together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	3,93,368	1,40,100	3,44,468
1803	2,07,860	1,47,903	3,55,763
1804	94,762	54,825	1,49,587
1805	6,04,256	1,21,819	7,26,075
1806	3,26,727	1,31,513	4,58,240
Total.	14,28,973	6,05,160	20,34,133

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	2,06,024	1,41,000	3,47,024
1803	5,16,181	1,44,500	6,60,681
1804	3,28,725	95,000	4,23,725
1805	4,93,401	——	4,93,401
1806	3,42,878	——	3,42,878
Total.	18,87,209	3,80,500	22,67,709

Articles of Import in 1805.

Pepper	Sicca Rupees 3,65,516
Spices	2,05,209
Sundries	33,531
Tressure	1,21,819
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 7,26,075

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees 85,089
Grain	37,724
Opium	3,20,748
Canvas and gunnies	7,365
Sugar	16,620
Rum	4,126
Sundries	4,031
Imports re-exported, viz.	
Wine	2,166
Liquors	6,737
Broad cloth	200
Metals	3,025
Sundries	5,570
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 4,93,401

Merchandise imported into Bengal from the Coast of Sumatra, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees	14,28,973
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto during the same period		18,87,209
Exports exceed the imports		4,58,236
Treasure imported into Bengal from the Coast of Sumatra during the same period	6,05,160	
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto	3,80,500	
		2,44,660
Balance *in favour* of Bengal in five years	Sicca Rupees	6,82,896

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £85,362; on an average of five years, £17,072 8s. per annum.

COMMERCE WITH BRITISH ASIA.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Bengal from various parts of British Asia, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Bengal to various parts of British Asia during the same period.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	20,13,797	2,01,450	22,15,247
1803	15,45,342	2,99,113	18,44,455
1804	11,36,854	55,926	11,92,780
1805	17,76,715	3,04,043	20,80,758
1806	14,46,158	6,83,909	21,30,067
Total.	79,19,866	15,44,441	94,63,307

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	60,09,260	12,89,232	72,98,492
1803	62,78,181	1,44,500	64,22,681
1804	88,66,621	1,13,000	89,79,621
1805	86,64,508	—	86,64,508
1806	103,93,248	—	103,93,248
Total.	402,11,818	15,46,732	417,58,550

Merchandise imported into Bengal from British Asia in five years	Sicca Rupees	79,18,866
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		402,11,818
Exports exceed the imports		322,92,952
Treasure imported from various parts of British Asia	15,44,441	
Ditto exported to ditto	15,46,732	
		2,291
Balance *in favour* of Bengal, in five years	Sicca Rupees	322,90,661

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £4,036,332 15s. on an average of five years, £807,266 9s. per annum.

COMMERCE OF ALL PARTS OF BRITISH ASIA WITH THE PRESIDENCIES.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into the three Presidencies from various parts of British Asia in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from the Presidencies to various parts of British Asia during the same period.

IMPORTS INTO THE PRESIDENCIES.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	261,51,569	34,73,694	296,25,263
1803	278,49,371	13,82,028	292,31,399
1804	314,38,623	20,42,081	334,80,704
1805	318,94,736	34,21,562	353,16,298
1806	326,77,623	23,28,308	350,05,931
Total.	1500,11,922	126,47,673	1626,59,595

EXPORTS FROM THE PRESIDENCIES.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	220,03,252	51,46,261	271,49,513
1803	218,16,379	15,37,430	233,53,809
1804	281,38,624	27,70,339	309,08,963
1805	271,65,299	34,08,881	305,74,180
1806	294,06,681	48,99,473	343,06,154
Total.	1285,30,235	177,62,384	1462,92,619

Merchandise imported into the three Presidencies from British Asia in five years, 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees	1500,11,922
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		1285,30,235
Imports exceed the exports		214,81,687
Treasure imported into the Presidencies from British Asia	126,47,673	
Ditto exported from ditto	177,62,384	
		51,14,711
Balance *against* the Presidencies in five years	Sicca Rupees	265,96,398

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £3,324,549 15s. on an average of five years, £664,909 19s. per annum.

COMMERCE WITH THE GULFS OF PERSIA AND ARABIA.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Bengal from the Gulfs of Persia and Arabia in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Bengal to the Gulfs of Persia and Arabia during the same period; together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	3,21,891	7,38,499	12,60,390
1803	3,61,233	4,27,101	7,88,334
1804	5,04,079	4,32,352	9,36,431
1805	3,70,500	7,98,412	11,68,912
1806	4,41,068	13,55,981	17,97,049
Total.	21,98,771	37,52,345	59,51,116

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	12,13,304	——	12,13,304
1803	10,68,634	——	10,68,634
1804	13,94,275	——	13,94,275
1805	21,85,287	——	21,85,287
1806	34,38,320	——	34,38,320
Total.	92,99,880	——	92,99,880

Articles of Import in 1805.

Horses	Sicca Rupees	83,200
Cowries		56,894
Copper and copper nails		50,150
Drugs		42,651
Coffee		15,290
Dates		10,886
Raisins		13,265
Almonds		6,887
Coral		9,506
Beads		3,358
Elephants' teeth		2,523
Galls		17,762
Gems		12,749
Paints		7,978
Hartal		3,898
Coir and coir cables		2,884
Brimstone		9,190
Jewellery		2,325
Sundries		19,104
Merchandise		3,70,500
Treasure		7,98,412
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	11,68,912

Articles of Export, in 1805.

Piece goods	Sicca Rupees	8,45,788
Indigo		2,00,806
Sugar		5,37,255
Raw silk		73,994
Grain		3,91,928
Opium		1,755
Ginger		37,782
Turmeric		19,406
Seeds		16,304
Long pepper and root		13,264
Canvas and gunnies		7,543
Lac		4,438
Sundries		11,193
Imports re-exported, viz.		
Broad-cloth		5,201
Spices		4,978
Iron and nails		5,382
Sundries		8,270
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	21,85,287

Merchandise imported into Bengal from the Gulfs of Persia and Arabia in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees	21,98,771
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		92,99,880
Exports exceed the imports		71,01,049
Treasure imported into Bengal during the same period		37,52,345
Balance *in favour* of Bengal in five years	Sicca Rupees	108,53,395

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £1,356,674 5s. on an average of five years, £271,334 17s. per annum.

COMMERCE WITH PEGU.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Bengal from Pegu in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Bengal to Pegu during the same period; together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	4,00,029	9,450	4,09,479
1803	5,17,392	16,590	5,33,982
1804	2,33,922	——	2,33,922
1805	4,94,965	——	4,94,965
1806	2,83,241	——	2,83,241
Total	19,29,549	26,040	19,55,589

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	2,44,824	60,614	3,05,438
1803	51,679	17,250	68,929
1804	51,981	16,516	68,497
1805	1,61,198	——	1,61,198
1806	56,679	——	56,679
Total	5,66,361	94,380	6,60,741

Articles of Import in 1805.

Timber and plank	Sicca Rupees	4,01,955
Pepper		18,129
Hartal		38,788
Coir and coir cables		12,678
Horses		6,450
Wax		2,990
Sundries		13,966
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	4,94,965

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees	82,254
Opium		15,110
Grain		2,000
Rum		2,936
Canvas		1,534
Sundries		4,036
Imports re-exported, viz.		
Broad cloth		17,196
Iron and nails		6,528
Wine and liquors		2,637
Velvets		8,314
Tin and plated ware		4,625
China ware		3,085
Ironmongery		2,148
Sundries		9,395
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	1,61,198

Merchandise imported into Bengal from Pegu in five years	Sicca Rupees	19,29,549
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		5,66,361
Imports exceed the exports		13,63,188
Treasure imported into Bengal from Pegu during the above period	26,040	
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto	94,380	
		68,340
Balance *against* Bengal in five years	Sicca Rupees	14,31,528

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £178,941; on an average of five years, £35,788 4s. 6d. per annum.

COMMERCE WITH PULO PINANG AND THE EASTWARD.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Bengal from Pulo Pinang and the Eastward in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Bengal to Pulo Pinang and the Eastward during the same period; together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	11,73,879	5,04,503	16,78,382
1803	5,69,133	7,04,321	12,73,454
1804	8,27,729	7,78,904	16,06,633
1805	12,86,639	15,03,969	27,90,608
1806	14,15,999	18,10,087	32,26,686
Total.	52,73,379	53,02,384	105,75,763

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	32,17,575	1,14,393	33,31,968
1803	19,78,098	——	19,78,098
1804	23,66,409	——	23,66,409
1805	34,80,416	——	34,80,416
1806	17,34,394	——	17,34,394
Total.	127,76,892	1,14,393	128,91,285

Articles of Import in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees	23,703
Benjamin		787
Beetle-nut		2,15,272
Pepper		6,71,187
Rattans		7,712
Spices		69,781
Wax		6,802
Metals		93,812
Tutenague		92,396
Cochineal		20,224
Sapan-wood		6,975
China-ware		2,293
Liquors		6,564
Sugar		171
Cordage		2576
Beads		2,576
Sundries		63,808
Treasure		15,03,969
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	27,90,608

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees	8,16,612
Raw silk		1,60,318
Grain		1,61,820
Opium		21,25,309
Canvas and gunnies		22,136
Carriages and palanquins		19,660
Ginger		4,500
Sugar		4,807
Carpets and blankets		4,736
Sundries		35,109
Imports re-exported, viz.		
Wine and liquors		62,425
Iron and ironmongery		29,271
Broad-cloth		9,165
Anchors		4,854
Sundries		19,794
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	34,80,416

Merchandise imported into Bengal from Pulo Pinang in the years 1802 to 1806	Sicca Rupees	52,73,379
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		127,76,892
Exports exceed the imports		75,03,513
Treasure imported into Bengal during the same period	53,02,384	
Ditto exported from ditto	1,14,393	
		51,87,991
Balance *in favour* of Bengal in five years	Sicca Rupees	126,91,504

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £1,586,438, on an average of five years, £317,287 12s. per annum.

COMMERCE WITH BATAVIA.

The direct commerce carried on with Batavia in the years 1802 to 1806 was trifling.

In the year 1802 there was merchandise imported into Bengal to the amount of, Sicca Rupees	87,727
During the same period there was merchandise exported to the amount of	6,64,483
Exports exceed the imports	5,76,756
Treasure imported into Bengal from Batavia during the same period	72,750
Balance *in favour* of Bengal ..... Sicca Rupees	6,49,506

which, at 2s. 6d. per Sicca Rupee, is £81,188 5s.

COMMERCE WITH MANILLA.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Bengal from Manilla, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Bengal to Manilla during the same period; together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	1,43,794	10,55,139	11,98,933
1803	2,699	——	2,699
1804	——	——	——
1805	1,09,399	1,97,516	3,06,915
1806	——	——	——
Total.	2,55,892	12,52,655	15,08,547

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	2,42,908	——	2,42,908
1803	——	——	——
1804	——	——	——
1805	9,84,956	——	9,84,956
1806	4,25,207	——	4,25,207
Total.	16,52,371	——	16,52,371

Articles of Import in 1805.

Sapan-wood ..... Sicca Rupees	32,046
Tutenague	68,046
Sundries	9,307
Treasure	1,97,516
Imports in 1805 ..... Sicca Rupees	3,06,915

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods ..... Sicca Rupees	9,15,796
Opium	27,641
Silk	5,625
Sundries	31,066
Imports re-exported, viz.	
Iron and nails	3,646
Glass-ware	318
Sundries	842
Exports in 1805 ..... Sicca Rupees	9,84,956

Merchandise imported into Bengal from Manilla in the above five years ..... Sicca Rupees	2,55,892
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto	16,52,371
Exports exceed the imports	13,96,479
Treasure imported into Bengal from Manilla during the same period	12,52,655
Balance *in favour* of Bengal ..... Sicca Rupees	26,49,134

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £331,141 15s. on an average of five years, £66,228 7s. per annum.

COMMERCE WITH CHINA.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Bengal from China in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive: likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Bengal to China during the same period; together with the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	15,83,793	13,72,646	29,56,439
1803	14,90,927	16,41,549	31,32,476
1804	20,02,659	41,14,286	61,16,945
1805	14,45,006	18,65,403	33,10,409
1806	15,32,838	23,07,371	38,40,209
Total.	80,55,223	113,01,255	193,56,478

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	38,22,547	42,000	38,64,547
1803	52,72,316	——	52,72,316
1804	67,87,441	——	67,87,441
1805	70,79,641	——	70,79,641
1806	47,10,513	——	47,10,513
Total.	276,72,458	42,000	277,14,458

Articles of Import in 1805.

	Sicca Rupees
Alum	54,669
Beads	9,156
Camphire	1,36,363
Nankeens	35,484
Piece-goods	1,22,127
Brandy and other liquors	9,322
Pepper	65,820
Tutenague	4,87,977
Tea	1,66,604
Tin	34,434
Vermilion	33,011
Paper goods	11,758
Kittisols	7,530
China-ware	19,017
Lackered ware	6,059
Sugar and sugar-candy	25,537
Spices	10,291
Cassia and cassia buds	19,134
Red and white lead	87,023
Drugs	8,169
Sapan-wood	6,975
Provisions	10,618
Sundries	57,928
Treasure	18,65,403
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 33,10,409

Articles of Export in 1805.

	Sicca Rupees
Piece-goods	3,70,469
Grain	1,55,500
Opium	32,94,570
Saltpetre	2,87,144
Cotton	28,74,616
Canvas and gunnies	6,896
Elephants' teeth	209
Cutch	5,283
Sundries	35,967
Imports re-exported, viz.	
Wine and liquors	14,992
Glass-ware	7,902
Broad-cloth	785
Iron and ironmongery	9,092
Sundries	7,207
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 70,79,641

Merchandise imported into Bengal from China in 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees 80,55,223
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto	276,72,458
Exports exceed the imports	196,17,235
Treasure imported into Bengal from China during the same period	113,01,255
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto	42,000
	112,59,255
Balance *in favour* of Bengal in five years	Sicca Rupees 308,76,490

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £3,859,561 5s. on an average of five years, £771,912 5s. per annum.

COMMERCE WITH VARIOUS PLACES.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Bengal from various places in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Bengal to various places during the same period.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	4,33,772	76,225	5,09,997
1803	2,49,984	1,55,917	4,05,901
1804	1,11,787	——	1,11,787
1805	1,12,460	——	1,12,460
1806	2,38,084	9,000	2,47,084
Total.	11,46,087	2,41,142	13,87,229

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	7,08,713	——	7,08,713
1803	3,32,379	——	3,32,379
1804	1,04,258	——	1,04,258
1805	2,57,198	——	2,57,198
1806	6,82,259	——	6,82,259
Total.	20,84,807	——	20,84,807

Merchandise imported into Bengal from various places in five years ..... Sicca Rupees		11,46,087
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		20,84,807
Exports exceed the imports		9,38,720
Treasure imported from various places during the same period		2,41,142
Balance *in favour* of Bengal, in five years ..... Sicca Rupees		11,79,862

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £147,482 15s. on an average of five years, £29,496 11s. per annum.

COMMERCE WITH FOREIGN ASIA, &c.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Bengal from the various parts of Foreign Asia, &c. in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Bengal to various parts of Foreign Asia, &c. during the same period. The articles of which the imports and exports consisted, are enumerated under the heads of the respective places.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	43,44,885	38,40,462	81,85,347
1803	31,91,368	29,45,478	61,36,846
1804	36,80,176	53,25,542	90,05,718
1805	38,18,969	43,65,300	81,84,269
1806	39,11,230	54,83,039	93,94,269
Total.	189,46,628	219,59,821	409,06,449

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	96,09,169	2,28,257	98,37,426
1803	87,03,106	17,250	87,20,356
1804	107,04,364	16,516	107,20,880
1805	141,48,696	——	141,48,696
1806	115,51,857	——	115,51,857
Total.	547,17,192	2,62,023	549,79,215

Merchandise imported into Bengal from various parts of Foreign Asia ..... Sicca Rupees		189,46,628
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		547,17,192
Exports exceed the imports		357,70,564
Treasure imported into Bengal from various places	219,59,821	
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto	2,62,023	
		216,97,798
Balance *in favour* of Bengal in five years ..... Sicca Rupees		574,68,362

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £7,183,545 5s. on an average of five years, £1,436,709 1s. per annum.

COMMERCE OF THE BRITISH SETTLEMENTS WITH FOREIGN ASIA.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into the British settlements in India from all parts of Foreign Asia, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from the British settlements in India to all parts of Foreign Asia.

IMPORTS INTO THE BRITISH SETTLEMENTS				EXPORTS FROM THE BRITISH SETTLEMENTS.			
Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.	Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	52,43,097	123,83,118	276,26,215	1802	276,60,282	8,43,007	285,03,289
1803	123,27,937	83,00,534	206,28,471	1803	264,92,460	17,13,522	282,05,982
1804	174,37,081	176,36,050	350,73,131	1804	358,00,309	19,99,170	377,99,479
1805	146,59,077	176,29,338	322,88,415	1805	350,15,303	7,96,428	358,11,731
1806	166,66,266	151,73,918	318,40,184	1806	333,45,026	5,90,185	339,35,211
Total.	763,33,458	711,22,958	1474,56,416	Total.	1583,13,550	59,42,312	1642,55,692

Merchandise imported into the British settlements in India from various parts of Foreign Asia, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive ..... Sicca Rupees 763,33,458
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto 1583,13,550

Exports exceed the imports 819,79,922
Treasure imported into the British settlements during the same period 711,22,958
Ditto exported from ditto 59,42,312
651,80,646

Balance *in favour* of the British settlements in five years ..... Sicca Rupees 1471,60,568

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which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £18,395,071; on an average of five years, £3,679,014 4s. per annum. 1 3

ing in the following proportions to the different settlements, viz.

Bengal	Sicca Rupees 574,68,362	which, at 2s. 6d. each, is	£7,183,545 5 0
Madras and its dependencies	230,60,792	ditto	2,882,599 0 0
Bombay and Surat	666,31,414	ditto	8,328,926 15 0
Total	Sicca Rupees 1,471,60,568	ditto	£18,395,071 0 0

The commerce carried on between the British settlements and other parts of British Asia, Foreign Asia, &c. which include all ports and places from the Cape of Good Hope to Japan, is what is commonly called the country trade, from being carried on by British subjects resident in India, and the native merchants, in Indian-built ships. This commerce is attended with considerable benefit to the British settlements, from the large quantities of treasure that it brings in, and has of late years much increased. In the seven years, 1795 to 1801 inclusive, there was

Merchandise imported into Bengal from British and Foreign Asia ..... Sicca Rupees 267,71,373
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto 551,25,736

Exports exceed the imports 283,54,363
Treasure imported into Bengal during the same period 109,92,108

Balance *in favour* of Bengal in seven years ..... Sicca Rupees 393,46,471

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £4,918,308 17s. 6d. on an average of seven years, £702,615 11s. per ann.

as carried on from Madras and Bombay during the same period, cannot be ascertained.

which, at 2s. 6d. per

COMMERCE WITH ALL PARTS OF THE WORLD.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Bengal from all parts of the world, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Bengal to all parts of the world during the same period: together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	112,40,025	117,40,856	229,81,481
1803	87,36,197	105,30,644	192,66,841
1804	90,14,957	115,84,959	205,99,916
1805	109,30,799	129,39,615	238,70,414
1806	137,96,633	176,54,492	314,51,125
Total.	537,19,211	644,50,566	1181,69,777

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	349,32,170	15,67,039	364,99,209
1803	354,62,304	2,51,008	357,13,312
1804	361,23,327	1,29,516	362,52,843
1805	373,95,877	——	373,95,877
1806	418,80,466	——	418,80,466
Total.	1857,94,144	19,47,563	1877,41,707

Articles of Import in 1805.

Apparel, boots, shoes, &c.....Sicca Rupees	56,382
Books and stationery	1,56,820
Beetle-nut and leaf	2,41,165
Beads	58,587
Carriages	1,18,586
Cutlery, &c.	1,41,612
Cochineal	28,376
Coir and coir cables	1,47,953
Chank-shells	2,03,728
Coral	26,694
China-ware	23,321
Cowries	76,751
Cocoa-nuts and shells	22,041
Drugs and dyes	4,30,091
Dates	11,411
Eatables, provisions, &c.	22,534
Elephants' teeth	4,140
Glass-ware and looking-glasses	3,00,659
Gums	12,749
Haberdashery	1,01,850
Hosiery	1,08,647
Hats	87,860
Horses	1,38,550
Ironmongery	1,84,623
Liquors, wine, beer, spirits, &c.	22,78,452
Lametta	20,489
Metals	4,25,543
Millinery	1,00,763
Naval stores	1,18,340
Oil and oilman's stores	3,49,103
Piece-goods	4,30,872
Pepper	11,35,111
Perfumery	65,906
Carried over.....Sicca Rupees	76,29,709

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods .....Sicca Rupees	118,49,670
Indigo	52,21,609
Sugar and jaggery	33,24,796
Raw silk	30,86,491
Grain	24,60,716
Bengal rum	1, 8,153
Opium	58, 6,888
Saltpetre	2,[illegible],711
Cotton	30,[illegible] 6,544
Ginger	1,23,532
Seeds	1,12,361
Canvas and gunnies	1,70,192
Wearing apparel	33,196
Carriages	68,660
Cotton yarn and thread	5,513
Drugs and dyes	82,861
Elephants' teeth	14,430
Long pepper and root	98,487
Provisions	31,557
Spices	37,465
Tobacco and snuff	3,020
Turmerie	41,761
Sundries	5,39,859
Carried over.....	[illegible]

Imports brought up.....Sicca Rupees	76,29,709
Plate and plated ware	73,108
Provisions	22,534
Quicksilver	33,531
Saddlery	1,31,271
Spices	4,17,578
Sugar, sugar-candy, and jaggery	27,974
Sandal-wood	26,141
Timber and plank	5,09,957
Tutenague	6,62,264
Tea	2,04,414
Tobacco	2,349
Vermilion	56,581
Woollens	1,64,999
Sundry small articles	9,66,389
Treasure	129,39,615
Imports in 1805 .....Sicca Rupees	238,70,414

Exports brought up.....Sicca Rupees	366,85,472
Imports re-exported, viz.	
Spice	27,465
Wine	1,53,081
Drugs and dyes	15,318
Liquors	52,231
Pepper	3,059
Camphire	74,813
Ironmongery	60,160
Woollens	42,537
Guns	3,936
Sundry small articles	2,78,305
Exports in 1805 .....Sicca Rupees	373,96,577

Merchandise imported into Bengal from all parts in five years.....Sicca Rupees	537,19,211
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto	1,857,94,144
Exports exceed the imports	1,320,74,933
Treasure imported into Bengal during the same period	644,50,566
Ditto exported from ditto	19,47,563
	625,03,003
Balance *in favour* of Bengal in five years .....Sicca Rupees	1,945,77,936

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £24,322,242; on an average of five years, £4,864,448 4s. per annum.

The commerce of Bengal has considerably increased of late years, as will appear from the following statement of imports and exports for seven years previous to 1802.

IMPORTS INTO BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1795	64,77,813	48,71,058	113,48,871
1796	53,40,732	27,27,729	80,74,461
1797	39,17,779	29,13,594	68,31,373
1798	61,12,355	33,82,063	94,94,418
1799	83,64,000	106,47,000	190,11,000
1800	110,92,000	73,58,000	183,60,000
1801	101,95,000	72,65,000	174,60,000
Total.	514,15,679	391,64,444	905,80,123

EXPORTS FROM BENGAL.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1795	204,50,131	——	204,50,131
1796	153,57,197	——	153,57,197
1797	151,20,209	——	151,20,209
1798	139,24,113	——	139,24,113
1799	257,15,000	——	257,15,000
1800	280,84,000	——	280,84,000
1801	314,60,000	——	314,60,000
Total.	1501,10,650	——	1501,10,650

Merchandise imported into Bengal from all parts of the world in seven years.....Sicca Rupees	514,15,679
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto	1501,10,650
Exports exceed the imports	986,94,971
Treasure imported into Bengal during the same period	391,64,444
Balance *in favour* of Bengal in seven years .....Sicca Rupees	1378,59,415

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £17,232,426 17s. 6d. on an average of seven years, £2,461,775 5s. per ann.

COMMERCE OF THE BRITISH SETTLEMENTS WITH ALL PARTS OF THE WORLD.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into the British settlements from all parts of the world in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from the British settlements to all parts of the world during the same period.

Years.	IMPORTS INTO BENGAL. Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Years.	EXPORTS FROM BENGAL. Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.		Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	498,58,972	252,59,805	751,18,777	1802	723,05,505	60,39,810	783,45,315
1803	467,88,104	213,23,047	681,11,151	1803	729,88,415	33,40,210	763,28,625
1804	564,17,626	291,79,089	855,96,715	1804	831,40,337	47,69,509	879,09,846
1805	556,33,262	338,66,483	894,99,745	1805	800,41,983	42,05,309	842,47,292
1806	619,42,885	311,94,786	931,37,371	1806	854,87,082	55,11,326	909,98,408
Total.	2706,40,549	1408,23,210	4114,63,759	Total.	3939,63,322	238,66,164	4178,29,486

Merchandise imported into the British settlements in India from all parts of the world in five years, 1802 to 1806 inclusive ..... Sicca Rupees 2706,40,549
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto 3939,63,322

Exports exceed the imports 1233,23,773
Treasure imported into Bengal during the same period 1408,23,210
Ditto exported from ditto 238,66,164

1169,56,046

Balance *in favour* of the British settlements in five years ..... Sicca Rupees 2402,79,819

Being in the following proportions for the different settlements:

Bengal	Sicca Rupees	19,43,77,936, which, at 2s. 6d. each, is	£24,322,242	0	0
Madras and its dependencies		3,28,51,307 ..... ditto	4,106,413	7	6
Bombay		1,28,50,576 ..... ditto	1,606,322	0	0
Total	Sicca Rupees	24,02,79,819 ..... ditto	£30,034,977	7	6

Being on an average of five years, 1802 to 1806 inclusive, £6,006,995 9s. 6d. per annum.

Of the treasure retained, the following is the proportion for each settlement:

Bengal	Sicca Rupees	6,25,03,003 which, at 2s. 6d. each, is	£7,812,875	7	6
Madras and its dependencies		2,91,18,587 ..... ditto	3,639,823	7	6
Bombay		2,53,35,456 ..... ditto	3,166,932	0	0
Total	Sicca Rupees	11,69,57,046 ..... ditto	£14,619,630	15	0

The following is a list of the articles of which the imports and exports from the British settlements in India to all parts of the world, consisted in 1805.

Articles of Import.	
Apparel, boots, shoes, &c...Sicca Rupees	2,37,333
Books and stationery	3,59,042
Beetle-nut and leaf	11,10,694
Beads	1,20,798
Carriages	1,44,431
Cutlery, &c.	2,52,963
Cochineal	2,17,221
Coir and coir cables	2,19,137
Copra	2,48,537
Cornelians	62,231
Chank shells	2,08,837
Coral	1,20,215
China-ware	2,43,225
Cowries	90,060
Cocoa-nuts and shells	3,88,937
Cotton	75,46,261
Cotton yarn	97,481
Drugs and dyes	20,58,847
Dates	2,26,288
Eatables, provisions, &c.	2,82,016
Furniture	74,583
Elephants' teeth	3,89,487
Fruits	44,120
Glass-ware and looking-glasses	4,76,328
Gums	2,01,772
Grain	86,26,799
Gunnies	1,20,830
Ghee	6,51,689
Haberdashery	1,23,242
Hosiery	1,34,674
Hemp	1,64,000
Hats	1,38,540
Horses	6,74,253
Ironmongery	2,44,859
Liquors, wine, beer, spirits, &c.	47,82,185
Lametta	1,15,578
Metals	12,63,515
Millinery	1,45,784
Naval stores	5,37,343
Carried over ..... Sicca Rupees	331,73,144

Articles of Export.	
Piece-goods..... Sicca Rupees	225,15,175
Indigo	52,58,114
Sugar and jaggery	61,07,578
Raw silk	53,41,997
Grain	75,87,617
Bengal rum	1,38,153
Opium	58,66,888
Saltpetre	3,09,470
Cotton	117,87,294
Ginger	1,40,989
Seeds	2,25,457
Gunnies and canvas	2,74,391
Beetle-nut, &c.	1,43,524
Wearing apparel	1,12,918
Bangle ivory	71,565
Chank shells	67,930
Carriages	76,653
Cocoa-nuts	6,79,984
Chillies	52,587
Cotton yarn and thread	72,360
Cardamums	75,341
Copra	1,64,208
Drugs and dyes	12,10,314
Dates	2,44,467
Elephants' teeth	3,21,423
Naval stores	71,643
Fruits	13,537
Horses	3,39,665
Lametta	79,270
Oil and oilman's stores	40,482
Pepper	10,90,015
Precious stones	6,02,088
Long pepper and root	98,487
Provisions	1,22,442
Salt	1,68,014
Sandal and sapan-wood	4,33,335
Spices	4,47,332
Shark-fins	2,44,755
Tobacco and snuff	90,953
Carried over..... Sicca Rupees	725,94,415

Imports brought over.....Sicca Rupees	331,73,144
Oil and oilman's stores	7,91,877
Piece-goods	73,74,899
Pepper	18,58,150
Perfumery	1,17,036
Plate and plated ware	81,257
Provisions	1,14,503
Quicksilver	1,43,964
Raw silk	25,32,044
Saddlery	2,06,521
Shawls	1,08,014
Spices	8,41,553
Salt	49,090
Seeds	2,60,345
Sugar, candy, and jaggery	27,47,640
Sandal-wood	3,40,983
Timber and plank	8,77,794
Tutenague	8,03,243
Tea	3,71,102
Tobacco	1,32,422
Vermilion	1,29,991
Woollens	2,39,475
Sundry small articles	23,34,215
Merchandise	556,33,262
Treasure	338,66,483
Imports in 1805.....Sicca Rupees	894,99,745

Exports brought over.....Sicca Rupees	725,94,415
Timber	58,642
Turmeric	67,021
Cochineal	2,97,939
Cornelians	81,015
China-ware	82,334
Glass-ware	87,759
Liquors	4,18,314
Metals	11,33,703
Quicksilver	1,15,895
Shawls	73,177
Tea	85,685
Tutenague	85,381
Vermilion	1,42,518
Woollens	3,45,299
Sundry small articles	13,14,063

Imports re-exported, viz.

Grain	97,096
Coral	64,795
Spices	1,22,335
Wine	4,41,567
Glass-ware	27,140
Metals	1,54,896
Drugs and dyes	68,254
Liquors	3,60,793
Pepper	65,836
Camphire	81,098
Oilman's stores	28,708
Ironmongery	61,520
Naval stores	29,104
Woollens	63,189
Guns	61,261
Piece-goods	51,534
Provisions	52,098
Sugar and sugar-candy	35,180
Timber	53,469
Sundry small articles under 20,000 rupees each	5,28,090
Merchandise	800,41,983
Treasure	42,05,309
Exports in 1805 ..... Sicca Rupees	842,47,292

PRICE CURRENT OF EUROPEAN AND OTHER PRODUCE.

ARTICLES, AND FROM WHENCE.		HOW SOLD.	1809. March.		1810. September.		1811. August.	
			Sicca Rupees.		Sicca Rupees.		Sicca Rupees.	
			from	to	from	to	from	to
Ale	England	Per hogshead	115	145	115	150	115	140
Alum	China	Per maund	5½	6	6	6½	6	6½
Anchors	England	Per cwt.	21	32	20	30	21	32
Arrack	Batavia	Per gallon	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½	1½
Beetle-nut	Eastward	Per maund	3½	3½	2½	3	3½	3½
Benjamin	Sumatra	Ditto	12	40	10	35	12	50
Bottles, empty	England	Per 100	24	34	24	30	24	32
Brandy	Ditto	Per gallon	2	4	2	4	2	4
Brimstone	Eastward	Per maund	7	10	5	5½	10	12
Broad cloth, 1st sort	England	Per yard	12	16	14	15	15	16
Ditto, 2d	Ditto	Ditto	70	125	80	130	80	130
Bunda	Ditto	Per piece	8	25	8	25	8	25
Cables, 10 to 16 inches	Ditto	Per cwt.	28	30	25	30	28	30
Camphire	Sumatra	Per maund	50	60	70	80	80	90
Canvas	England	Per bolt	28	30	28	30	28	30
Cardamums	Malabar	Per seer	2	4½	2½	5	3	6
Cassia	China	Per maund	25	30	25	35	30	40
Chank shells	Jaghire	Per 100	8	50	10	40	8	50
	Patte	Ditto	6	30	5	25	6	30
	Tuticorin	Ditto	8	50	8	40	8	50
Cinnamon	Ceylon	Per seer	2	2½	2	2½	2	2½
Claret	England	Per chest	360	480	420	576	420	540
Cloves	Moluccas	Per seer	2½	3½	3	4½	4	5½
Cochineal	England	Ditto	25	30	24	28	30	32
Coculus Indicus	Malabar	Per maund	6	8	5	7	6	8
Coir cordage	Maldive	Ditto	10	14	12	15	10	12
	Coast	Ditto	6	7	7	9	5	6
	Ceylon	Ditto	6	8	7	10	6	7
Coffee	Mocha	Ditto	28	30	30	32	30	50
	Bourbon	Ditto	10	20	12	20	10	20
Copper, Manufactured		Ditto	70	75	72	75	70	75
Copper, Sheets		Ditto	58	65	55	65	55	65
Copper, Japan		Ditto	52	55	55	60	50	55
Copper, English in sticks		Ditto	54	56	52	55	52	55
Copper, Pillar		Ditto	6	6½	5	6	5	6
Coral, Phaur		Ditto	2½	3	2	3	2½	3
Coral, Moonga		Ditto	1½	1½	1½	5½	1½	1½
Coral, Nimmoonga		Ditto	1	1½	1	1½	1	1½
Cordage, 1 to 5 inches		Ditto	28	30	26	29	28	30
Cowries		Maldives	4	5	4½	5½	4	5
Cutch		Pegu	3½	4	3½	4	3½	4
Dammer		Sumatra	2½	4	2	4	3	5
Gold thread		England	15	16	14	15	15	16
Galls		Aleppo	30	35	27	32	25	28
Gum, Ammoniacum		Westward	5	10	4	9	5	10
Gum, Arabic		Ditto	5	8	6	8	5	8
Gum, Galbanum		Persia	2	4	3	6	2	4

ARTICLES, AND FROM WHENCE.	HOW SOLD.	1809. March.		1810. September.		1811. August.	
		Sicca Rupees.		Sicca Rupees.		Sicca Rupees.	
		from	to	from	to	from	to
Hing ..... Persia	Per maund	30	85	30	75	20	80
Hingra ..... Ditto	Ditto	4	7	4	6	5	8
Hartal ..... Lucknow	Ditto	7	8	7	9	9	10
Hartal ..... Pegu	Ditto	6	7	5½	6½	6	7
Hartal ..... Tobkey	Ditto	5	6	5	5½	6	7
Iron ... Square bars ..... England	Ditto	9	9½	9	9½	9	9½
Iron ... Flat ditto ..... Ditto	Ditto	9½	9¾	9½	9¾	9	10
Iron ... Rod ..... Ditto	Ditto	10	12	10	12	10	12
Lead ... Pigs ..... Ditto	Ditto	12	13½	12	12½	12	12½
Lead ... Sheets ..... Ditto	Ditto	13	16	13	14	14	14½
Linseed oil ..... Ditto	Per gallon	4	5	5	6	5	6
Mace ..... Amboyna	Per seer	30	36	30	45	30	40
Madeira wine ..... Madeira	Per pipe	300	1200	300	1200	300	1200
Nutmegs ..... Amboyna	Per seer	4	8	5	10	5	10
Persian galls ..... Persia	Per maund	15	16	14	15	14	16
Pepper ..... Coarchy	Ditto	10	11	10	12	11	12
Pepper ..... Bencoolen	Ditto	8	9	10	11	11	11½
Pepper ..... Malay and Java	Ditto	8	8½	9	10	10	10½
Pitch ..... England	Per barrel	12	14	12½	15	12	14
Porter ..... Ditto	Per hogshead	130	160	120	150	130	160
Purpets ..... Ditto	Per piece	20	60	20	65	20	65
Quicksilver ..... Ditto	Per seer	2½	2½	2½	2½	3	3½
Rattans ..... Eastward	Per bundle	¼	½	¼	½	¼	½
Red lead ..... England	Per maund	16	20	15	18	16	20
Redwood ..... Manilla	Ditto	1½	2½	2	3	2½	3
Rhubarb ..... China	Per pecul	55	60	60	70	55	65
Rum ..... England	Per gallon	2½	4	2½	3½	3	4
Sago ..... Eastward	Per maund	2	5	2	4	2	4
Saffron ..... England	Per seer	10	30	10	20	30	32
Salt ..... Coast	Per maund	3½	3½	3	3½	3	3½
Sandal wood, 1st sort ..... Malabar Coast	Ditto	18	20	16	18	14	16
Ditto, 2d ditto ..... Ditto	Ditto	5	16	5	14	6	12
Sapan-wood ..... Manilla	Ditto	3½	4½	3	4	3	5
Senna-leaf ..... Westward	Ditto	3	4	4	5	8	10
Shot, patent ..... England	Per cwt	16	18	15	17	18	20
Silver thread ..... Ditto	Sicca weight	1½	1½	1½	2	1½	1½
Steel ..... Ditto	Per maund	10	14	12	17	12	16
Tar ..... Ditto	Per barrel	28	35	28	35	28	35
Tea, in cups ..... Eastward	Per maund	28	30	25	30	28	30
Ditto, slabs ..... Ditto	Ditto	25	26	27	28	27	29
Turpentine ..... England	Per gallon	6	10	8	10	8	11
Tutenague ..... China	Per maund	30	32	28	29	45	50
Twine ..... England	Per cwt	60	80	60	80	60	80
Verdigrease ..... Ditto	Per seer	5	5½	10	13	13	15
Vermilion ..... Ditto	Ditto	2½	3	2½	2½	3	3½
Ditto ..... China	Ditto	2	2½	2¼	3	3	3½
Vitree, single ..... England	Per bolt	28	30	28	30	28	30
Ditto, double ..... Ditto	Ditto	45	50	40	45	45	50
Wax ..... Pegu	Per maund	8	45	10	40	10	40
Ditto ..... Sumatra	Ditto	40	45	40	50	40	42
White lead ..... England	Ditto	16	17	15	16	16	17
Ditto ..... China	Ditto	16	18	16	17	17	18

PRICE CURRENT OF BENGAL PRODUCE.

ARTICLES.	HOW SOLD.	1809. March. Sicca Rupees. from	to	1810. September. Sicca Rupees. from	to	1811. August. Sicca Rupees. from	to
Beetle-nut	Per maund	3½	3¾	3¼	3½	3¼	4
Borax	Ditto	8	10	9	11	9	11
Canvas, country	Per bolt	8	16	8	16	8	16
Castor oil	Per maund	15	16	14	16	16	20
Chillies, dry	Ditto	2½	3¼	2¾	3¼	2½	3
Cotton — Jallon	Ditto	13	14	14	14½	14	15
Cotton — Cotchura	Ditto	13	13½	13½	14	14	14½
Cummin seeds	Ditto	4	5	5	6	3½	4
Cutch, country	Ditto	3	12	3	10	5	10
Dholl — Aurhore	Ditto	1½	1¾	1½	2	1½	2
Dholl — Moosury	Ditto	1½	1½	1½	2	1½	1½
Dholl — Casary	Ditto	¾	1	¾	1	¾	1
Dry ginger	Ditto	2	3	3	4	3	4
Elephants' teeth, large	Ditto	110	125	105	120	110	140
Ditto, small	Ditto	40	100	45	90	40	100
Ghee	Ditto	13	14	13	16	13	16
Gram — Moog	Ditto	1¾	2	1¼	1½	1¼	2
Gram — Culloy	Ditto	1	1¼	¾	1	1	1½
Gram — Boot	Ditto	1½	1¾	¾	1	1	1¼
Gunny bags	Per 100	6	6½	6	7	6	8
Indigo	Per maund	50	130	50	125	50	130
Lac — Jooree	Ditto	8	9	7½	8	8	9
Lac — Shell, Beerbhoom	Ditto	14	16	13	15	14	16
Lac — Ditto, Moorshed	Ditto	12	14	12	13	12	13
Lac — Stick	Ditto	6	7	6	6½	7	8
Lac — Lake	Ditto	45	50	42	48	45	50
Long pepper	Ditto	6	6½	5½	6	5½	6
Ditto root	Ditto	4	10	5	8	4	8
Myrabolans	Ditto	¾	¾	¾	1	¾	1
Munject	Ditto	4	6½	4	5½	4	5½
Mussroo Malda	Per corge	60	160	50	150	60	160
Nux vomica	Per maund	¾	1	¾	1	¾	1
Opium Patna	Per chest	1300	1350	1550	1600	1500	1540
Ditto, Benares	Ditto	1240	1250	1300	1330	1450	1500
Peas	Per maund	1	1¼	¾	1	¾	1
Rice — Patchery or Patna	Ditto	1½	1¾	1¼	1½	1¼	1½
Rice — Ditto, fine	Ditto	1¼	2¼	1½	2	1½	1½
Rice — Good cargo	Ditto	1¼	1¼	1	1½	1	1½
Rice — Common cargo	Ditto	1	1¼	¾	1	¾	1
Raw silk, Cossimbuzar	Per seer	7	9½	7½	10	7½	10
Ditto, Radnagore	Ditto	7½	8	7½	8½	8	9
Safflower	Per maund	8	18	8	15	8	20
Sal Ammoniac	Ditto	19	20	16	20	16	20
Saltpetre, Culmee	Ditto	5	6	5	6	5	6
Sugar — Benares	Ditto	6	8	8	8½	8	8½
Sugar — Beerbhoom	Ditto	7	7¾	7½	8	7½	8
Taffaties	Per corge	65	320	60	300	65	320
Turmeric	Per maund	2½	3	2½	3½	3	3½
Wheat	Ditto	1½	1½	1	1½	1	1½

GOVERNMENT CUSTOMS ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

By a regulation passed on the 10th of August, 1810, for rescinding the whole of the regulations previously in force for the collection of the Government customs, and for re-establishing those customs with amended rules for their collection, it is enacted that custom-houses shall henceforth be fixed in the Cities of Agra, Furruckabad, Allahabad, Benares, Patna, Moorshedabad, Dacca, and Calcutta, and in the towns of Meerut, Cawnpore, Mirzapore, Chittagong, Hughley, and Balasore; and that duties, under the denomination of Government customs, shall be levied on the under-mentioned goods, at the following rates, *viz.*

I. Five per cent. ad valorem, on the importation, exportation, or transit of the following goods:—

Gold & silver tissues.	Sugar.	Vitriol, or tooteah.	Boots and shoes.
Lace and thread.	Jaggery, goor, syrup	Raw hides.	Stone plates.
Gunnies.	Dammer.	Leather.	Bengal paper.

The same duties on the under-mentioned articles, taken at a fixed valuation, *viz.*

Cutch	8 rupees per factory maund.	Cake and seed-lac	10 rupees per md. of 80 Sic. wt.
Cocoa-nuts	20 ditto per thousand.	Sal Ammoniac	25 ditto per factory maund.
Stick and shell-lac	10 ditto per md. of 80 Sic. wt.	Alkali, soojee mutt- tee, or natron	1 ditto per maund.
Soap	8 ditto per maund.		

II. 7½ per cent. ad valorem, on the importation, exportation, or transit of the following goods:—

Cotton yarn.	Mustard, sesamum, and all other oils.	Chuckrassy wood.	Vidree ware.
Carpets & setrenjees	Aromatic seeds.	Toon and Sitsol do.	Chanks.
Oil and oil seeds.		Hookahs & snakes.	Pipe staves.

The same duty on the under-mentioned articles, at a fixed valuation, *viz.*

Raw silk filature	7 rupees per seer of 80 Sic. wt.	Long pepper	12 rupees per factory maund.
Bengal wound silk	6 ditto per ditto	Piplamul	12 ditto per ditto
Tusha	3 annas per ditto	Dry ginger	4 ditto per ditto
Chassum	3 ditto per ditto	Saltpetre	4 ditto per maund.
Beetle-nut	5 rupees per factory maund.	Elephants' teeth	110 ditto per ditto

III. 10 per cent. ad valorem, on the importation, exportation, or transit of the following goods:—

Assafœtida.	Soondry timber.	Minium.	Arsenic.
Saul timber.	Yellow ochre.	Prussian blue.	Sulphur.
Sissoo ditto.	Vermilion.	Peoree.	Alum.
Jarrool ditto.	Indian red.	Verdigrease.	Coral.

The same duty on the under-mentioned articles, at a fixed valuation, *viz.*

Wax	45 rupees per factory md.	Saffron	35 rupees per seer.
Wax candles	70 ditto per ditto	Chunam	40 ditto per md. of 80 Cal. Sic. wt. to be levied at Calcutta and Dacca only.
Pepper, black & white	11 ditto per ditto		

IV. On the importation, exportation, or transit of cotton and wool, 12 annas per md. of 96 Cal. Sic. wt.

V. 5 per cent. ad valorem, on the importation, exportation, or transit, generally, of borax and tincal, and 2½ per cent. on the importation from Nepaul of the same articles.

VI. 7½ per cent. ad valorem, on the importation, exportation, or transit, generally, of the following goods, and 2½ per cent. on the importation from Nepaul of the same articles, viz.

Ottar and other essential oils.	Ambergris.	Benjamin.	Rose-water.
Perfumed oils.	Civet.	Frankincense.	Keerah-water.
	Musk.	Putcha paut.	

VII. 10 per cent. ad valorem, on the importation of pig lead, sheet lead, small shot, and tobacco, imported into Cuttack, (to be levied at Balasore only). The same duty upon quicksilver, taken at a fixed valuation of four rupees per seer; and tin and tutenague at 20 rupees per maund. The same duty upon an advance of 50 per cent. on the invoice valuation of shawls.

VIII. 5 per cent. ad valorem, on the importation by sea of the following articles:

European woollens.

All canvas, except such as is manufactured in the country, or of country materials.

Cordage and other marine stores, except sunn hemp, or materials for cordage, of country growth.

Rosin and turpentine.

Cowries imported at Calcutta, Chittagong, or Balasore only.

The same duty on coir, the produce of Ceylon or the Maldives, at 9 rupees per factory maund.

IX. 7½ per cent. ad valorem, on the importation by sea only of the following articles:—

Mahogany and all other sorts of wood used in cabinet ware.

Beads, malas, or rosaries.

Carriages, (the duty on which is to be levied under rules especially enacted for Calcutta).

China goods (tea excepted), coffee, sago, and rattans.

The same duty on galangal and kullinjan, taken at a fixed valuation of 8 rupees per maund.

X. 10 per cent. ad valorem, on the importation by sea only of wines, European goods, and tea.

XI. 5 per cent ad valorem, on the importation generally of furs, cow-tails, and cowries; and 2½ per cent. on the importation of the same articles from Nepaul.

XII. 10 per cent. on the importation by sea of spices, viz. pimento, cloves, mace, nutmegs, cassia, malabathrum leaf, or tauzpaut.

2½ per cent. on the importation of the same articles from Nepaul.

The same duty on copper or brass, wrought or unwrought, at a valuation of 20 rupees per maund.

XIII. 10 per cent. on the inland importation generally of unwrought copper and brass, at a valuation of 20 rupees per maund.

XIV. 10 per cent. ad valorem, on the importation by sea of iron, steel, and manufactured iron and steel; and the same duty on importation by land generally; and 2½ per cent on the importation from Nepaul of those articles, taken at a fixed valuation of 7 rupees per maund.

XV. 10 per cent. ad valorem on the importation from Europe or America, and 30 per cent. on the importation from foreign territories in Asia, of gin, brandy, rum, and arrack.

XVI. Relates to the duties on salt, the traffic in which is confined exclusively to the natives.

XVII. Two rupees each on the importation or transit of matchlocks, one rupee each on swords, and four annas each on shields.

XVIII. 7½ per cent. ad valorem, on the importation and transit generally, and 2½ per cent. on the importation from the Vizier's and Nepaul territories, of cotton piece-goods, silk piece-goods, and goods partly of silk and partly of cotton, embroidered goods and brocades, thread, tape, and fringes.

XIX. 5 per cent. ad valorem, on the transit or exportation of country woollens, viz. looys and blankets, the manufacture of the Company's territories; and 2½ per cent. on their importation from Nepaul.

XX. 7½ per cent. ad valorem, on the transit or exportation of the following goods, the produce of the country, or on their importation by sea.

Dying drugs, *viz.* allah, morinda, cochineal, cossum flower, madder, londh, and toond flower.

Woods used in dying, *viz.* sapan-wood, and sandal ahmer, or red sandal-wood.

Fragrant woods, *viz.* white or yellow sandal-wood, ugger, or aloe-wood, and tuggur.

XXI. 7½ per cent. ad valorem, on the transit or exportation of the following gums and drugs, the produce of the country, and 10 per cent. on their importation by sea, *viz.*

Camphire.	Copal, or karoba.	Spikenard.	Bubera.
Cherayta.	Galbanum.	Mastic.	Owala.
Columbo root.	Gum Arabic.	Hurrah.	Myrrh.
Soonamooky leaf.	Senna.	Storax.	

XXII. 5 per cent. on the importation, exportation, or transit of indigo, taken at a fixed valuation of 100 rupees per factory maund, and an additional duty of 2½ per cent. on the exportation by sea of indigo, the produce of the Vizier's dominions.

XXIII. 5 per cent. ad valorem, on the exportation by sea only, of tallow, tallow candles, and hog's lard; salted provisions and purser's stores.

XXIV. A drawback of 2½ per cent. is allowed on the exportation by sea, of the following articles:—

Long pepper.	Copal, or karoba.	Storax.	Hursinghar flower.
Pipla mool.	Galbanum.	Stick-lac.	Londh.
Dry ginger.	Gum Arabic.	Lahi-Joory-lac.	Munjeet, or madder.
Aniseeds.	Spikenard.	Shell-lac.	Toond flower.
Cardamums.	Mastic.	Cake-lac.	Sapan-wood.
Coriander seeds.	Hurrah.	Seed-lac.	Red sandal-wood.
Cummin seeds.	Bubera.	Attah.	White ditto
Adjuan seeds	Owala.	Awl, or morinda.	Yellow ditto
Camphire.	Myrrh.	Cochineal.	Ugger, or aloe-wood.
Cherayta.	Soonamookey leaf.	Cossum flower.	Tuggur.
Columbo root.	Senna.	Dye flower.	

The same drawback is allowed on the exportation to Europe or America, of sugar, jaggery, goor, and syrup.

XXV. A drawback of 5 per cent. is allowed on the exportation by sea, of such cotton piece-goods, silk piece-goods, goods made partly of silk and partly of cotton, and all such silk as shall have previously paid a duty of 7½ per cent.

XXVI. An additional duty of 2½ per cent. is charged on the re-exportation by sea, of all foreign articles, which have paid an import or transit duty, not exceeding 2½ per cent.

The goods specified above, after having paid the prescribed duties once, are not liable to any further impost, save such additional duties as they may be particularly subject to, on their exportation by sea. All goods not specified above, are liable to a duty of 5 per cent. on importation or exportation by sea, with the exception of the following, *viz.*

IMPORTS.—Teak timber, horses, bullion, coin, precious stones and pearls, goomooteo, and other articles (coir excepted), used for the manufacture of cordage.

EXPORTS.—Grain of all sorts, precious stones and pearls, opium purchased at the Company's sales, carriages, palanquins, and spirits distilled after the European manner in the provinces under this Presidency, to an amount not exceeding 1000 gallons.

The prices of those articles, on which the duties are levied ad valorem, are specified in books of rates which are kept for public inspection at the different custom-houses, &c. If any article is omitted in the book of rates, its value is taken at an advance of 20 per cent. on the prime cost, as proved by the invoice, or otherwise to the satisfaction of the Collector. Damaged goods are rated at their actual value.

In the enumeration of articles subject to duty, the maund, where not otherwise specified, is always taken at 80 Calcutta Sicca weight per seer.

Any attempt to pass a larger quantity of goods than is specified in the application to the Collector, or subsequently to pass a larger quantity than is described in the rowannah, or pass, subjects the whole of the goods to confiscation. An attempt to pass goods of superior value to those specified in the pass, subjects them to double duties.

Free rowannahs, entitling the goods to pass without question, are granted by the collectors at Calcutta, Chittagong, and Balasore, on such articles as are exclusively imported by sea, on payment of a duty of ¼ per cent. on the value, and a fee to the Collector of 1 rupee per mile.

Goods found in transit, unaccompanied by a rowannah, are chargeable with double duties; and in the event of the owner refusing or omitting payment, such part of them as may be deemed equivalent to the duties, is seized, and after three months sold, and the balance of the proceeds of the sale is paid to the owners, the duties and custom-house charges being first deducted. Any attempt clandestinely to pass goods within the limits of any of the chokies, unaccompanied by a rowannah, or without having paid the duties, is punished by confiscation of the whole.

The transportation of all arms and military stores, without a pass from Government, is strictly prohibited; the importation of opium, the produce or manufacture of any foreign country, is also prohibited.

IMPORT REGULATIONS.

All goods landed, or attempted to be landed, at any other place than the Custom-house, are liable to confiscation. A manifest of the cargo of every vessel entering the port, must be delivered in on oath.

In landing the cargoes, each boat shall be accompanied by a note, specifying the quantity and quality of the goods addressed to the Collector, who shall write an order on the note, to weigh, or examine, or pass them.

Goods not manifested, are liable to confiscation; or if the goods are laden on freight, the Master or supracargo is liable to a penalty not exceeding the value of them. In case of a refusal to pay this penalty, the Board of Revenue may prohibit the landing of any more goods, and may withhold a port-clearance and pilot from the vessel.

Previous to landing a cargo, security must be given for payment of the duties, either by a deposit of goods, or of Company's paper; and in default of payment at the expiration of three months, the said deposit becomes forfeited.

The original invoices of all goods imported must be produced at the Custom-house, and the duties adjusted according to their amount. In the event of no invoice being produced, or of the Collector seeing cause to suspect that the invoice does not exhibit the true prime cost, the duties are to be settled on the Calcutta prices.

British ships importing at the foreign settlements, pay the same duties as if imported at Calcutta.

Duties on Coromandel goods are levied on an advance of 15 per cent. on the invoice prices, and on China goods on an advance of 30 per cent.

The duties on all spirits imported by sea in casks (Batavia arrack excepted) are calculated on a fixed valuation of £30 per pipe. A deduction of 10 per cent. is allowed for leakage, provided the Collector is

satisfied that the casks have not been filled up. Otherwise, the casks are to be gauged, and the duty levied on the actual quantity.

The duty on Batavia arrack is fixed at 55 Sicca rupees per leager.

The duties on the cargoes of Portuguese ships importing from Macao, are levied on the amount of the account sales; or, in the event of those accounts not being produced, or the Collector having reason to suspect that they exhibit a false statement, on an advance of 40 per cent. on the prime cost.

Goods imported on American vessels, pay the same duties as the cargoes of British vessels; and the duties on American produce are adjusted from the account sales.

The duties on goods imported under any other foreign flags, are levied on an advance of 60 per cent. on the prime cost. And all goods from sea imported into Calcutta from any of the foreign settlements, are assessed in the same manner as if imported on a foreign bottom.

No remission of duty on damaged goods is allowed after they have passed the Custom-house; and all such goods to entitle the owners to a remission, must be publicly sold at the Custom-house, and the duty settled on the proceeds.

Receipts are granted for all packages regularly marked and numbered, which may be lodged at the Custom-house, and the Collector is liable for the safe custody of the same. But the owners are liable to godown rent, if they allow their goods to remain for more than seven days in the Custom-house godowns, or under the shed, and to wharfage, if they leave them for more than fourteen days on the wharf.

Precious stones, though exempt from duty, must be entered, with a specification of their value, under a penalty of 10 per cent.

Copper or other goods, received at any of the other Presidencies in payment of advances due on contracts with the Company, or purchased at the Company's warehouses, pass duty free.

Security must be given, as in other cases, for the eventual payment of the import duties, on goods landed for exportation, or transshipped in port.

Parcels, or necessaries from Europe, are passed free of duty at the discretion of the Collector. But no other exemptions from duty are allowed, without special orders from the Governor-General in Council.

The following is a table of exchange for the settlement of the Calcutta customs.

COUNTRIES.	COINS.	RATE OF EXCHANGE.
Great Britain	Pound sterling	at 10 Sicca Rupees.
Germany	Crown	at 2 Sicca Rupees.
Denmark	Rix-dollar	at 1 Sicca Rupee, 10 Annas.
Ceylon	Rix-dollar	at 14 Annas.
France	Livre Tournois	at 24 for 10 Sicca Rupees.
Ditto	Mauritius Livre	at 48 for 10 Sicca Rupees.
Spain	Spanish dollar	at 2¼ Sicca Rupees.
Portugal and Madeira	Milrea	at 3¼ Sicca Rupees.
Bussorah	Raize Piastre	at 12 Annas.
China	Tale	at 2½ Sicca Rupees.
Madras	Star Pagoda	at 3½ Sicca Rupees.
Ditto	Swamy Pagoda	at 4 Sicca Rupees.

American currency to be converted into pounds sterling, as follows:

New England	by multiplying by three, and dividing by four.
Virginia	by multiplying by three, and dividing by four.
New York	by multiplying by nine, and dividing by sixteen.
Pennsylvania	by multiplying by three, and dividing by five.
South Carolina	by deducting one twenty-seventh part.
Georgia	by deducting one twenty-seventh part.

The pound sterling to be rated as above at 10 Sicca Rupees. Where the invoices are in dollars, the dollar to be rated at 2¼ Sicca Rupees.

EXPORT REGULATIONS.

The export duties, unless otherwise directed, are levied on the Calcutta market price of the goods, after deducting 10 per cent. therefrom.

Articles of home produce or manufacture, which, after the conclusion of peace, shall be exported to any of the foreign settlements which may be restored at that period, shall be liable to the same duties as if they were exported by sea in a foreign bottom.

All private goods for exportation must be shipped from the Custom-house ghaut, with a permit from the Collector, with the exception of grain, which, after being entered, may with permission be shipped from the other ghauts, and of goods going to Europe on the Company's tonnage, which may be shipped from the export warehouse, on a certificate stating that the duties have been paid, being produced along with the manifest, to the export warehouse-keeper.

The export duties must be paid, or security given for their payment, within ten days, before the goods are permitted to be shipped.

When the Collector suspects that the value of any bale of piece-goods exceeds that which is set forth in the chelaun, the goods are to be appraised, and the shipper must either pay the duty agreeable to the appraisement, or he will not be allowed to ship the goods. With the sanction of the Board of Trade, however, the proprietor may have the option of transferring such goods at their appraised value to the Company.

Bales, containing a greater quantity of piece-goods than is described in the chelaun, are liable to confiscation; and whatever goods may have been previously shipped under the same chelaun without examination, must pay double duty.

Of all other sorts of goods, the Collector is at liberty to examine one or more parcels at his discretion; and if their contents be found to vary from the chelaun, the owner is liable to the same penalties as in the case of piece-goods.

Goods attempting to pass Calcutta, without bringing to at the Custom-house, and receiving the permission of the Collector, are liable to confiscation.

Naval stores and provisions, the property of the Crown, pass free of duty; but not articles furnished to the navy by contractors or their agents.

Parcels for individuals, and necessaries, are passed at discretion.

A drawback to the amount of two-thirds of the import duties, is allowed on the re-exportation of all goods imported expressly for re-exportation, except in cases where the amount of the drawback is otherwise fixed by the above regulations. All such goods must be exported through the Custom-house, and included in the manifest. And no drawback is allowed on any packages, but such as are entire as imported, nor in any case after the port-clearance is taken out.

No claim for return of duty, on goods stated not to have been shipped, is admitted, after the departure of the vessel from Saugor.

Opium for exportation must be accompanied by a certificate, stating it to have been purchased at the Company's sales; and any attempt to pass opium not so purchased, or not corresponding with the certificate, is punished by confiscation.

After a vessel has obtained her clearance, if any goods are received on board, unaccompanied by a certificate of the duties having been paid, the pilot is authorized to detain the vessel, and the goods are liable to confiscation. All goods, moreover, seized in an attempt to ship them in a clandestine manner, are also liable to confiscation.

Goods transshipped without permission from the Collector, or shipped on a different vessel from that for which they may be passed, are subject to double duty.

No arms or military stores can be exported, without permission of the Governor-General in Council.

In no case either of imports or exports, can any objection to the rate of assessment be received, after the duties have been paid.

The following are the rules relative to Chittagong, Balasore, and Hughley.

In the valuation of imports, the Collectors at Chittagong and Balasore are guided by the same rules as are enacted for Calcutta, in as far as these may be applicable. In the valuation of exports, the market price of the goods at the ports from which they are exported, is taken as the standard.

The regulations with respect to the drawbacks which are laid down for Calcutta, are also applicable to Chittagong and Balasore.

Goods imported by sea into any of the foreign settlements on the Hughley, are liable, on exportation to the interior, to pay to the Collector at Hughley the same duties as are charged on goods imported into Calcutta on a foreign bottom. In like manner, goods brought to the foreign settlements from the interior, are liable to the same duties as are charged on the exportation of such goods from Calcutta on a foreign bottom.

TOWN DUTIES.

Town duties are levied on the articles, and at the rates hereafter specified, on the importation of such articles for sale, store, or consumption into the cities of Calcutta, Hughley, Patna, &c. *viz.*

I. 2½ per cent. on cleaned rice, wheat, and barley, taken at a fixed valuation of 1 Sicca rupee per maund of 80 Calcutta Sicca weight to the seer; and paddy at 8 annas per maund. The duty to be paid either in money or kind (*viz.* 1 seer per maund) at the option of the merchant, unless where it is levied by a public officer of Government, to whom it is paid in money only.

N. B. The collection of this duty on grain was afterwards suspended by a proclamation of Government.

II. 5 per cent. ad valorem on dholl, grain, and boote; oil and oil seeds; sugar, jaggery, and molasses, beetle-nut and turmeric.

III. 10 per cent. ad valorem on ghee and tobacco.

IV. 5 per cent. ad valorem, on importation into Calcutta only, of charcoal and fire-wood.

V. Relates to the duties on various kinds of salt not purchased at the Company's sales. No articles are to be subject to town duties, on their transit through any of the towns specified.

The town duties are let in farm, and collected by officers of the Collectors of the land revenue.

In the assessment of the town duties, the several articles are valued at their current prices, according to a book of rates prepared by the Collector.

Any attempt to import clandestinely articles liable to the town duties, without paying the same, is punished by a fine equal to the amount of the duties withheld: the fine to be levied by distraint, if not immediately discharged.

Any farmer, collector, &c. attempting to levy a town duty on articles not declared liable thereto, is subject to a fine equal to thrice the duty collected, besides such costs and damages as may be further awarded. The illegal detention of articles not liable to town duty, although no duty be actually levied, is also punishable by a fine not exceeding 500 rupees, besides such costs and damages as may be awarded.

Calcutta special Rules.—The town duties of Calcutta are collected by the Collector of Customs, and are levied on the several articles above described, whether imported into the city, or its suburbs.

The duties must be paid on the several articles as they pass the chokies, or sufficient security must be given for their payment within fifteen days.

Goods intended for transit or shipment, and therefore not liable to the town duties, are conveyed to the Custom-house wharf by a peon, who does not quit the boat until the goods are shipped or passed.

All boats passing the town with goods on board, must be examined; and in the event of their attempting to pass, after being required by the officer to stop, the goods are liable to confiscation.

Should any person dispute the payment of the town duties, the Collector is at liberty to detain such part of the goods as may be equivalent to the same, and after fifteen days, to put them up to sale, as in the case of a refusal to pay the Government customs.

Every attempt to convey clandestinely into the city or suburbs, articles subject to the town duties, is punishable by confiscation.

REGULATIONS RESPECTING SHIPPING GOODS IN PRIVATE TRADE TO EUROPE.

All persons intending to export goods from Bengal to Great Britain, are required to notify the same in writing to the Secretary of the Board of Trade, specifying the sorts and quantities of goods intended for shipment, the quantity of tonnage which they will occupy, and the time or times at which they will be ready for shipment, and in what proportions. Some specific day or days must be fixed for the time of shipment, within the period prescribed by Government, after which period no goods will be received.

In the event of the goods not being ready for shipment by the time specified, or of the whole tonnage applied for not being occupied, the freight becomes forfeited; and the payment of this forfeiture will invariably be enforced, unless the most satisfactory reasons shall be assigned for the tonnage not being filled up.

The goods for which tonnage may have been required, being assorted into cargoes, and allotted to the different ships of the season, the parties will be advised thereof: and on the requisition of the sub-export warehouse-keeper, they must send their respective goods for shipment to the export-warehouse, accompanied by manifests in duplicate, with a certificate from the Collector of the Customs subjoined to each manifest, stating that the duties have been paid.

The rate of homeward freight is fixed at £ per ton for regular ships, and £ for extra ships.

Individuals are at liberty either to pay the freight of their goods in Bengal, or to give security for its payment in Great Britain. It is required, however, that their applications for tonnage should specify their intentions on this head; and in the event of their chusing to pay the freight in Great Britain, they should be accompanied by a declaration from the person tendered as security, signifying his assent to the same.

The expence of transporting goods to the ships from Calcutta, must be defrayed by the shippers.

Applications for tonnage, made by agents on behalf of their constituents, must be accompanied by their authority for requiring the same.

The following is an extract from a general letter from the Court of Directors, dated 31st August, 1804.

Par. 92. "The owners of several of the extra ships which were taken up for the purpose of bringing home the goods of individuals from India, having expressed great dissatisfaction at the hardship to which they have been exposed, in consequence of the bad package of the bales of privilege goods imported on their respective ships; we directed our warehouse-keepers to report for our information, whether the goods in question occupied a greater space than the generality of consignments on the Company's account; and as it appears, by their reply to our application, that the owners of the above ships have been considerable sufferers from the preceding circumstance, we feel it necessary, from motives of justice both to the Company and the owners of the above class of extra ships, to direct that, immediately on the receipt of this letter, you give public notice that the shippers of the privilege goods will be required to pack their consignments equally well as those of a similar description imported on the Company's account, and that, in the event of their neglecting to comply with these instructions, the freight will be calculated according to the actual measurement of the goods, and not, as has hitherto been customary, according to the number of pieces."

PAR. 93. "And with a view the more effectually to enforce these instructions, it is our further directions that the export warehouse-keeper be directed to insert in the account tonnage the exact measurement of those bales which may appear to him, on a general inspection, to be negligently packed, in order that they may be charged with freight according to the plan above described."

Fort William, July 9, 1810. Published by order of the Board of Trade.

Complaints having been made to the Board of Trade, of the inconvenience resulting from the great variety which hitherto has prevailed in the sizes of the indigo chests passed through the Honourable Company's export warehouse for consignment in Europe, and it being desirable, for the purpose of promoting good stowage of the indigo in the ship on which it may be laden, lessening the risk of breakage, and damage of so valuable an article, and facilitating the calculations of tonnage of the indigo, that as much uniformity as may be practicable, may be in future observed in the size of the chests: the following dimensions, which approach nearer to the general average size of the indigo chests usually delivered, than any other which could be fixed upon, are recommended to be observed by all persons manufacturing indigo in the present season:—three feet long, two feet broad, one foot deep, eight inches solid, and ten feet contents.

Five chests of the above dimensions are equal to one ton.

Fort William, July 9, 1810. Published by order of the Board of Trade.

RULES FOR SENDING PRESENTS TO EUROPE.

Application for permission to send the articles are made to the Board of Trade, through their Secretary, with a declaration that they are not intended for trade.

To the application is annexed a certificate from the Collector of Government Customs, signifying that the Government Customs have been duly adjusted, or that nothing (if such be the case) is due; for this purpose applications should previously be addressed to the Custom Master, requesting him to receive the duties leviable on such articles, agreeably to the existing rules for his guidance on the exportation of merchandise.

In order to prevent abuses from the present indulgence, or inconvenience to the public service, the Board reserve to themselves a power of refusing the permission requested, and their refusal is to be conclusive upon the parties, without any reason being assigned. The Board also reserve to themselves a power of refusing the permission for the particular ship that may be desired, and of granting it for some other, if the party chuse to accept it for such other ship.

As every article (Madeira wine excepted) must be put up to auction at the Company's sales, the owner will, notwithstanding the declaration, be at liberty to let any article go to the last bidder, if he shall think the price bid unreasonable, or that the bidder has been actuated by unworthy motives in bidding for it.

Articles intended for presents allowed to be sent home to a value not exceeding 3,000 rupees.

All applications are to be made conformably to forms prescribed; but, in order to prevent inconvenience on this account, a number of printed forms are kept at the Secretary's office, which individuals may have on paying such moderate price as will reimburse the charge of printing.

The following are the fees payable at the Secretary's office, on the registry of each package:

If not exceeding 250 rupees value, to pay		2 rupees.
If above 250 rupees, and not exceeding	500 rupees, to pay	3 ditto.
If above 500 ditto	1000 ditto	4 ditto.
If above 1000 ditto	2000 ditto	5 ditto.
If above 2000 ditto	3000 ditto	6 ditto.
If above 3000 ditto		7 ditto.

PORT-CHARGES.

In 1807 the Court of Directors sent instructions to the Bengal Government to enquire into the means of improving that part of the public service connected with the marine department, with a view of ascertaining whether a revenue might not be derived from the charge made for piloting ships and vessels into and out of the River Hughley, or from other sources connected with the navigation of the river. A Committee was at this period appointed, and the port-charges and pilotage settled at the rates in the following table. The ordinary expence of the marine was Sicca rupees 6,60,000. Of this sum the establishment of twelve pilot vessels, with the offices immediately connected therewith, constituted one half: the expence of the vessels alone was Sicca rupees 2,34,000, including wages, stores, provisions, and repairs. The pilotage was calculated according to the number of feet of water a ship or vessel drew. Foreigners, except Americans, paid double the rates charged to English vessels. The pilotage of an English ship of 800 tons, in and out of the River, with the charges for leadsmen, and tow-boats, amounted to about 1500 rupees each voyage she made to Calcutta. The amount of the collections on these accounts was about 3,00,000 rupees per annum. The Court of Directors, with a view towards improving the establishment, procured boys from Christ's Hospital, where they receive the necessary education to be apprentices for a certain term of years; after which they are to be appointed mates, and rise gradually to masters or pilots. By this measure the service will, in the course of a few years, consist of well-educated and scientific men.

RATES OF PILOTAGE.

I. The following abstracts of two tables, framed by the Committee of Marine Enquiry, shew the amount of full and broken pilotage to be charged on British and foreign shipping, importing into and exporting from the River Hughley; and the rates therein specified are to be considered as the standard charges, and to exempt in future owners of British ships from the charges hitherto made for "mooring," in the passage up or down the river, "and taking out money."

Pilotage of British Ships and Vessels.—Abstract of Table I. shewing the rates of full and broken pilotage, chargeable to British ships and vessels, inward and outward of the River Hughley.

Draft of Water.	Full Pilotage inward.	Additional Pilotage outward.
9 to 10 feet	100 rupees	10 rupees.
10 – 11 ditto	120 ditto	10 ditto
11 – 12 ditto	140 ditto	10 ditto
12 – 13 ditto	160 ditto	10 ditto
13 – 14 ditto	180 ditto	20 ditto
14 – 15 ditto	210 ditto	20 ditto
15 – 16 ditto	250 ditto	20 ditto
16 – 17 ditto	300 ditto	40 ditto
17 – 18 ditto	350 ditto	40 ditto
18 – 19 ditto	400 ditto	40 ditto
19 – 20 ditto	450 ditto	60 ditto
20 – 21 ditto	500 ditto	60 ditto
21 – 22 ditto	550 ditto	60 ditto
22 – 23 ditto	560 ditto	60 ditto

INWARD PROPORTION FROM SEA.	
To Saugor	4 twelfths.
Kedgeree	6 ditto
Culpee	8 ditto
Diamond Harbour	9 ditto
Fulta, or Moyapore	10 ditto
Calcutta	full pilotage.
OUTWARD PROPORTION FROM CALCUTTA.	
To Moyapore or Fulta	2 twelfths
Diamond Harbour	3 ditto
Culpee	4 ditto
Kedgeree	6 ditto
Saugor	8 ditto
Sea	full pilotage

By broken pilotage is meant the proportion of full pilotage between the different stages or places of anchorage.

All ships, the property of foreigners, as well Asiatic as European, to be, as heretofore, subject to the charge termed "Lead Money," it being indispensably necessary that the pilot should have with him a leadsman in whom he may confide, when in charge of other than a British ship.

A consideration for detention to be authorized to be charged by persons in the pilot service, who may be kept on board of ships at anchor by the desire of the commander or owner, at the rate of two rupees per day from British, and four rupees per day from foreign vessels.

PILOTAGE OF FOREIGN SHIPS AND VESSELS.—Abstract of Table II. shewing the rates of full and broken pilotage chargeable to foreign ships and vessels, inward and outward.

Draft of Water.	Full Pilotage inward.	Additional Pilotage outward.
9 to 10 feet	200 rupees	25 rupees.
10 – 11 ditto	240 ditto	25 ditto
11 – 12 ditto	280 ditto	25 ditto
12 – 13 ditto	320 ditto	25 ditto
13 – 14 ditto	360 ditto	50 ditto
14 – 15 ditto	420 ditto	50 ditto
15 – 16 ditto	500 ditto	50 ditto
16 – 17 ditto	600 ditto	75 ditto
17 – 18 ditto	700 ditto	75 ditto
18 – 19 ditto	800 ditto	75 ditto
19 – 20 ditto	900 ditto	100 ditto
20 – 21 ditto	1000 ditto	100 ditto
21 – 22 ditto	1100 ditto	100 ditto
22 – 23 ditto	1200 ditto	100 ditto

INWARD PROPORTION FROM SEA.

To Saugor	4 twelfths.
Kedgeree	6 ditto
Cuipee	8 ditto
Diamond Harbour	9 ditto
Fulta or Moyapore	10 ditto
Calcutta	full pilotage.

OUTWARD PROPORTION FROM CALCUTTA.

To Moyapore or Fulta	2 twelfths.
Diamond Harbour	3 ditto
Cuipee	4 ditto
Kedgeree	6 ditto
Saugor	8 ditto
Sea	full pilotage.

The charge for transporting a ship from her moorings into any of the docks at Kidderpore, Howrah, or Sulkea, or from any of the docks to her moorings, to be 50 rupees, and no higher charge for such service to be authorized in future.

HIRE OF MOORING CHAINS.

The lowest charge to a ship requiring the accommodation of the chain moorings, at either of the places above mentioned, to be for ten days; and upon using them longer, a charge to be made at the established rate per day, according to the season of the year, and the burthen of the ship, for every day exceeding ten.

In the months of April to October, seven months, the hire of the chains to be as follows:

Ships under 500 tons burthen ..... 7 rupees per day.
Ships of 500 tons and upwards ..... 8 ditto

In the five months, November to March inclusive, as follows:

Ships under 500 tons burthen ..... 5 rupees per day.
Ships of 500 tons and upwards ..... 6 ditto

MOYAPORE MAGAZINE DUTY.

This duty, at the rate of one anna per ton, to be charged once only for each voyage a ship or vessel may make to the port of Calcutta, and pass the magazine, and not, as heretofore, both on entering and departing. No charge of magazine duty to be made in future upon ships that remain below the magazine, except they shall, for their own convenience, send powder or ammunition to be lodged in it, in which they are to be charged with the duty, as if they passed it.

LIGHTHOUSE DUES.

A lighthouse having been erected on the bank of Gowcally Creek, to the southward of Kedgeree, for the purpose of facilitating the navigation of the river, and of conducing to the safety of ships which may anchor in Kedgeree roads, the public are hereby informed, that a light will be exhibited in the lanthorn of the lighthouse on the 15th of June, 1810; after which date, a duty will be levied, on account of Government, upon all ships, brigs, and sloops, including coasting vessels and donies, which may navigate the River Hughley, as follows:—

I. Upon every vessel, being British property, or which may be owned by natives residing under the protection of the British flag, as well as those belonging to the United States of America, 2 annas per ton per annum.

II. Upon every vessel, being the property of foreigners, whether belonging to Europeans or Asiatics, 4 annas per ton per annum.

III. The charge for the above duty will be included in the pilotage bill, inwards or outwards, at the option of the master attendant.

BOAT HIRE.

The following are the established rates of hire for boats going down the river as far as Saugor, for the trip.

DESCRIPTION OF BOATS.		Number of Oars.	Faltah.	Tumlook and Diamond Har.	Calpee.	Kedgeree.	Ingelee, Saugor, and Cox Island	Demurrage per Day.
			Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.	Rupees.
PINNACES.	Catherine .. coppered	18	75	110	130	190	220	14
	Emelia ..... ditto	18	75	110	130	190	220	14
	Francis ..... ditto	18	75	110	130	190	220	14
	Eagle ..... ditto	18	75	110	130	190	220	14
	Diana ..... ditto	18	75	110	130	190	220	14
	Rosalia ..... ditto	18	75	110	130	190	220	14
	Venus ..... ditto	16	70	105	125	180	210	13
	Nancy ..... ditto	16	68	100	120	170	200	12
	Minerva ..... ditto	16	68	100	120	170	200	12
	Julia ..... teak sheathed..	16	68	100	120	170	200	12
	Lark, ... coppered	14	60	90	110	150	180	10
	Betsey ..... ditto	14	60	90	110	150	180	10
	Anna ..... ditto	14	60	90	110	150	180	10
	Charles ..... teak sheathed..	10	28	40	50	70	80	5
	Dolphin ..... coppered	8	75	110	130	190	220	14
	coppered.....	6	10	15	17½	25	30	2½
	ditto	8	12	18	21	30	36	3
	ditto	10	14	21	24½	35	42	3½
BAWLEARS.	ditto	12	16	24	28	40	48	4
	ditto, with 2 apartments	12	20	30	35	50	60	5
	ditto, with tow-boat bottom	8	14	21	24½	35	42	3½
	ditto, with long-boat ditto ..	10	20	30	35	50	60	5
	with Venetians, not sheathed	6	8	12	14	20	24	2
	ditto	8	10	15	17½	25	30	2½
PANSWAYS.	ditto, coppered or painted ..	8	10	15	17½	25	30	2½
	ditto, ... ditto	8	12	18	21	30	36	3
	common pansways	6	6	9	10½	15	18	1½

N. B. Boats hired for the above trip, ought not to be detained in Calcutta, or below the river, more than one day; should they exceed that time, demurrage will be charged at the above rate.

MERCHANTS RESIDENT AT CALCUTTA.

The British merchants resident in Calcutta are a respectable and enterprising class of men, many of whom are possessed of large and independent fortunes, in the acquisition of which they have displayed those mercantile talents, and that enterprising spirit, which are the characteristic of the British nation. The following are the principal houses:—

Alexanders and Co.	Joseph Baretto and Co.	Robert Campbell.
Campbell, Hook, and Co.	Mackintosh, Fullon, and Co.	William Hollings.
Colvins, Baxett, and Co.	Mathew and Co.	John King.
De Verinne, Pere and Fils.	Palmer and Co.	Stephen Laprimaudaye.
Downie, Crullenden, and Co.	Peter Lumsdain, and Co.	Robert Lawson.
Fairlie, Fergusson, and Co.	Reid, Price, and Co.	John Mackenzie.
Francis and Gabriel Vrignon	James Scott and Co.	James M'Taggart.
Hogue, Davidson, and Co.	Sinclair, Inglis, and Co.	E. A. Roussac.
Johannes Sarkies and Co.	Charles Blaney.	

The Armenians are considered the most numerous body of foreign merchants in Calcutta; they carry on an extensive commerce with all parts of India and China, and are extremely diligent and attentive in business. They are considered to have the most accurate information from other parts, of any body of merchants. The principal houses are

Moses C. Arackel.	Simon Phanoos Bogram.	Narcis Johannes.
Sarkies Johannes.	Abraham Avitmall.	Aratoon Joseph Camell
Carrapit Chatoor.	Z. J. Shircore.	S. and Petruse Carrapits.
Car. Muckertich Morat.	Stephen Arstoon.	J. M. Simeon.

There are several Portuguese houses of agency, many of whom are possessed of large fortunes, and carry on a considerable trade with Macoa in China, and various parts of India. The principal houses are

Joseph Baretto and Co.	John D'Abreo.	Diego Pereira.
Philip and John Da Cruz.	Laurence Picachy.	Mark and A. Lackerstoen.

The native bankers, agents, and merchants are very numerous, the principal of whom are

Gopaul Doss Monohur Doss.	Gopaul Doss Mootichund.	Jewun Doss and Monoholl.
Lallah Auggur Shen.	Mootichund Ghonnissaum.	Odykurn Brijolhookun Doss.
Nundram Bydenaut.	Davy Doss Baulmokund.	Hadjee Hyder Hadjee Ahmud.
BrijoobullubDossGocalDoss	Benny Persaud Bindaband.	Aga Mahomed Nazam Ally Khan.
Ramshaw Ramnarain.	Takoor Doss Govind Doss.	Shaik Golaum Hussain.
Urjoonjee Nathjee.	MotoraDossBirjornmunDoss	Meer Mahomed Mady.
Hurrykissen Doss.	Incharam.	Meer Mahomed Sadick.

Exclusive of the above, there are various Jew, Greek, and others merchants resident at this Presidency.

A Bank was established in Bengal, and incorporated by charter on the 2d of January, 1809. The capital stock amounts to 50,000 rupees, and is divided into 500 shares of 10,000 rupees each; of which shares 100 belong to Government, and 400 to individuals. All persons in the service of the Company, and the Judges in the several Courts, as well as others, may hold shares in the Bank. The affairs are managed by nine directors, of whom three are nominated by the Government, and six by the Proprietors. The Bank is prohibited from engaging in trade, or any kind of agency, and the business is confined as far as possible, to discounting negotiable private securities, keeping cash accounts, receiving deposits, and circulating cash notes; and they are at liberty to receive in deposit, and for safe custody, bullion, treasure, jewels, plate, and other articles of value, not liable to spoil or waste, on such terms as they may deem reasonable.

RATES OF COMMISSION, AGENCY, &c.

The following are the general rates of agency, commission, and godown rent, agreed upon at a meeting of merchants and agents of Calcutta, held on the 9th of October, 1809.

COMMISSION.

I. On all sales, purchases, or shipments, except as follow ..... 5 per cent.
Bullion, which shall be liable to a commission of ..... ½ per cent.
Diamonds, and other precious stones, ditto ..... 2 ditto.
Indigo, piece-goods, silk, opium, cochineal, spices, coral, jewellery, copper, ships, vessels, houses or lands, where no advance on them has been made ..... 2½ ditto.
Goods consigned, and afterwards withdrawn, or sent to outcry, if no advance on them has been made, only half commission.

II. On giving orders for the provision of goods ..... 2½ per cent.
III. On guaranteeing bills, bonds, or other engagements ..... 2½ ditto.
IV. On the management of estates for others ..... 2½ ditto.
V. On procuring freight ..... 5 ditto.
VI. On making insurances, or writing orders for insurance ..... ½ ditto.
VII. On settling losses, partial or general ..... 1 ditto.
VIII. On effecting remittances, or purchasing, selling, or negotiating bills of exchange 1 ditto.
IX. On the recovery of money by law or arbitration ..... 2½ ditto.
X. On collecting house-rent ..... 2½ ditto.
XI. On attending the delivery of contract goods ..... 2 ditto.
XII. On becoming security for contracts ..... 3 ditto.
XIII. On ships' disbursements ..... 2½ ditto.
XIV. On obtaining money on respondentia ..... 2 ditto.
XV. On letters of credit granted ..... 2½ ditto.
XVI. On purchasing, selling, receiving from any of the public offices, lodging in ditto, delivering up, or exchanging Government paper, or other securities ..... ½ ditto.
XVII. On the Dr. or Cr. side of the account; on all items on which a commission of 5 per cent. has not been previously charged in the same account, and including Government paper subscribed for remittance to Europe, or to a new loan ..... 1 ditto.

GODOWN RENT.

		R.	A.	P.
Bales of piece-goods and silk	per month each	0	8	0
Ditto cotton, screwed	ditto	0	4	0
Chests of indigo, opium, and wine	ditto	0	8	0
Silk, piece-goods, shell-lac, and gums	ditto	0	8	0
Pipes of wine, or spirits	ditto	1	0	0
Saltpetre, sugar, rice, &c. in bags	ditto	0	2	0

Other articles, proportionately to bulk and value.

There are several established commission warehouses and public auctions at Calcutta. The commission charged on the transacting business, is generally 10 per cent. including servants' wages, expences of advertisements, &c.

INSURANCE COMPANIES.

There are ten Insurance Companies established at Calcutta. The nature of the insurances undertaken by them are two-fold: the insuring property shipped for Europe and America, and the insurance of the country trade from port to port in India, and from India to China. The following are the titles of the Companies, their secretaries, agents, &c.

Calcutta Insurance Office	Fairlie, Fergusson, and Co. Secretaries.
Calcutta Insurance Company	James M'Taggart, Secretary.
India Insurance Company	Hogue, Davidson, and Co. Agents.
Phœnix Insurance Company	James Scott and Co. Agents.
Asiatic Insurance Company	Alexanders and Co. Agents.
Hindostan Insurance Company	Joseph Baretto and Co. Agents.
Ganges Insurance Office	R. Campbell, Agent.
Hope Insurance Company	Mackintosh, Fullon, and M'Clintock, Agents.
Calcutta Life Insurance Company	Fairlie, Fergusson, and Co. Agents.
Canton Insurance Company	Palmer and Co. Agents.

The amount of insurance effected by the whole of those offices on goods shipped for London cannot be ascertained; but it appears that the Calcutta Insurance Office insured, from its establishment in 1798 to the spring of 1809, to Europe £2,411,157, the whole of which, in case of loss, was payable by their agents in London, being on an average about £220,000 per annum.

The following account of the losses by capture of ships and vessels, accounted for, and paid by the different Insurance Companies in Calcutta, from 1798 to the 1st of October, 1807, is extracted from a memorial addressed by the merchants, agents, ship-owners, and underwriters at Calcutta, to the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty, on the subject of the losses sustained by capture in the Indian seas.

Calcutta Insurance Office	Sicca Rupees 37,46,939
India Insurance Company	23,97,858
Phœnix Insurance Company	20,50,456
Calcutta Insurance Company	21,20,125
Asiatic Insurance Company	17,15,041
Hindostan Insurance Company	9,50,183
Ganges Insurance Company	7,36,520
Sicca Rupees	137,17,122

making, at the exchange of 2s. 6d. sterling per rupee ..... £1,714,630 5s. 0d.

To which are added, losses by capture paid by private underwriters, and the Insurance Companies at Bombay and Madras, estimated at 30,000,000 rupees, which, at the exchange of 2s. 6d. each, is 375,000 0 0

Forming a total of £2,089,640 5 0

By another statement in the same memorial, it appears that the losses sustained by the Calcutta Insurance Companies in two months alone of the year 1807, by the capture of twenty ships or vessels in the Bay of Bengal, during the months of September and October, amounted to upwards of £300,000 sterling.

The amount of property insured at the above offices; the premiums received; the losses by sea risks; nor an account of profit or loss arising from the business during the above period, are not stated.

MERCHANT SHIPPING.

The following is a list of the merchant ships belonging to the port of Calcutta in January, 1811, with their tonnage, the places where built, and to whom belonging.

NAMES.	TONS.	WHERE BUILT.	TO WHOM BELONGING.
Anna	700	Calcutta	Fairlie, Fergusson, and Co.
Aurora	560	Calcutta	Fairlie, Fergusson, and Co.
Anne	450	Denmark	James M'Carthy.
Auspicious	450	England	Hugh Atkins Reid.
Ann	400	Pegu	John Gilmore and Co.
Admiral Drury	300	Pegu	King and Luck.
Baring	600	Calcutta	Palmer and Co.
Bheemoolah	520	Calcutta	Edward Brightman.
Borneo	400	Pegu	Benjamin Fergusson.
Bussorah Packet	300	Pegu	John Clements.
Cornwall	795	Calcutta	Hogue, Davidson, and Co.
Coromandel	500	Chittagong	Hogue, Davidson, and Co.
Ceres	550	Denmark	Johannes Sarkies and Co.
Charlotte	320	Pegu	Shaik Gullum Hossain.
Elizabeth	600	England	William Richardson.
Elephant	600	Brazils	Hogue, Davidson, and Co.
Emma	440	Calcutta	Fairlie, Fergusson, and Co.
Eliza	408	Calcutta	Robert Babcock.
Fort William	1,100	Calcutta	Fairlie, Fergusson, and Co.
Fairlie	680	Calcutta	Fairlie, Fergusson, and Co.
General Wellesley	410	Calcutta	Hugh Atkins Reid.
Hope	565	Calcutta	Edward Brightman.
Harriet	480	Pegu	Hector Cochrane.
Helen	360	Chittagong	Johannes Sarkies and Co.
Hunter	300	Java	Campbells and Hook.
John Palmer	860	Calcutta	Hugh Atkins Reid.
Jessy	380	Pegu	Matthew Smith.
Lady Barlow	450	Pegu	Allan M'Askill.
Matilda	800	Calcutta	Hogue, Davidson, and Co.
Mornington	800	Calcutta	Fairlie, Fergusson, and Co.
Marchioness Wellesley	530	Calcutta	David Hunter.
Mentor	500	Pegu	Fairlie, Fergusson, and Co.
Marian	350	Calcutta	Alexander and Co.
Providence	620	Calcutta	Hugh Atkins Reid.
Portsea	320	Calcutta	Hogue, Davidson, and Co.
Resource	400	Calcutta	Fairlie, Fergusson, and Co.
Sir William Burroughs	600	Calcutta	Shaik Gullum Hossain.
Trowbridge	800	Calcutta	Fairlie, Fergusson, and Co.
Venus	350	Chittagong	Palmer and Co.

exclusive of numerous vessels under 300 tons each, forming in the whole 77 vessels, of 16327 tons; of which several have proceeded to Europe.

Bengal was formerly under the necessity of prosecuting her maritime trade on ships built in foreign ports. Before these provinces fell under the dominion of Great Britain, the natives never attempted marine expeditions; and prior to 1780, no effort was made by Europeans to construct ships in Bengal for the purpose of commerce. Two small snows, the Minerva and Amazon, were indeed built at Calcutta for the Company previous to this period; but it does not appear that this example operated as an incentive to others. The country trade of Bengal was then supplied with shipping from the ports of Surat, Bombay, Damaun, Pegu, and by occasional purchases of Foreign Europe ships; and if any considerable repairs were wanted, the ships were obliged to proceed to those ports to have them effected. The late Colonel Watson was the first person who ever built a ship of force or burthen in the River Hughley. In the year 1781 he launched the Nonsuch, of about 500 tons burthen, capable of mounting 32 guns, and constructed both for war and commerce. This ship is now in existence, and is a proof not only of good workmanship, but of the durability of her materials, as she is still reckoned in the first class of country ships, and occasionally employed as a cruizer for the protection of trade, by the Bengal Government.

A very calamitous event gave rise to ship-building in Bengal—the famine produced in the Carnatic by Hyder Ally's invasion in 1780. The extraordinary and pressing demand thereby created for tonnage, for the transportation of grain, and supplies of troops and stores to the British settlements on the Coast of Coromandel, raised the price of freight to such an enormous height, as roused the attention of almost every person in the remotest degree connected with commerce, to share in this profitable traffic. Ships not being procurable from other quarters in any proportion to the demand, individuals then began to turn their attention to the construction of ships in Bengal; and this noble and useful art has been ever since pursued with so much vigour, that instead of depending on other countries, as formerly, for the means of conveying her produce to foreign ports, Bengal now supplies not only shipping for her own commerce, but for sale to foreigners; and ship-building has become a very considerable branch of home manufactures.

The first attempts, except those already mentioned, were made in the Sunderbunds, at Chittagong, and Sylhet. But the vessels then built at these places being hastily run up on the spur of the occasion, composed of green timber and bad materials, and unskilfully constructed, fell quickly to decay, and for many years created a strong prejudice against Bengal ships. Ship-building is now almost entirely confined to Calcutta, where ships are at present built of all burdens, equal, in point of construction, workmanship, and durability, to any class of merchant ships in Europe, and superior to most. The progress and extent of this very important manufacture will be seen from the following account of vessels built in Bengal from the commencement of the year 1781 to 1802.

38 ships and 39 snows built at Calcutta, and on the River Hughley, whose tonnage was 24,580 tons.
18 ditto..... 54 ditto..... Chittagong, Sylhet, Backergunge, and other places..... 14,500 ditto.

Forming a total of 39,080 tons, the value of which, when equipped for sea, is estimated at 51,04,000 Sicca rupees. The direct advantages which Bengal has derived from the introduction of ship-building, may be estimated from a consideration only of the builders' profits and the workmen's wages; these amount to about two-fifths of the whole value, which on the above, is 20,41,600 Sicca rupees.

The decrease of English oak has been long a subject of very serious consideration to the British legislature, and many expedients have been suggested to guard the nation against the alarming consequences that would attend a scarcity of this essential article, on which the commerce and strength of Great Britain so materially depend. In 1771 a Committee was appointed to consider the state of the timber fit for the supply of His Majesty's navy; and in their report made to the House of Commons, May 6, 1771, they state, "That there was a great scarcity of timber for ship-building in England; and that for the better supply of timber and plank for the use of the navy, it had been found necessary to apply to

foreign countries; that the timber chiefly imported, was of a large, scantling, compass timber for knees, and other purposes; and that, from the information they have received, they are of opinion that there is not a sufficient quantity of timber in England to be purchased at any price; that the cause of the scarcity is occasioned partly by building such a large number of East India ships, partly by the general increase of shipping, and in a considerable degree by the augmentation of the King's ships, in their number, their size, and their scantlings; that there has been a great increase of shipping in general, but the increase has particularly been in the East India Company's ships, which from 30 sail, their number 30 years ago, are now 90 sail; one of which ships of 800 tons would take the same scantling as a ship of war of 50 or 60 guns; that within these twenty years, the East India Company have greatly increased the tonnage of their ships, for that in 1751 they were limited to 600 tons; in 1758 there was a regulation that the ships they would employ, should be 106 feet keel, and 33 feet broad; and by another regulation in 1770, their ships are to be 110 feet keel, and 35 or 36 feet broad, and that all the planking of their bottoms should be four inch; that by the latest contracts they run from 800 to 1000 tons, which interfere with ships of war from 50 to 74 guns; which is become so alarming, that it makes the Navy Board uneasy, and apprehensive that the difficulty of getting timber will be still greater; that in consequence of this increase in the size of the East India ships, the price of timber is principally affected at Deptford, Woolwich, and Chatham, the East India ships being built in that neighbourhood."

In 1772, in consequence of the above report, an Act was passed, entitled "An Act for the more effectually securing a quantity of oak timber for the use of the Royal Navy;" the preamble of which says, "Whereas the tonnage of the ships employed, and of those which are now building, in order to be employed in the service of the United Company of Merchants of England trading to the East Indies, doth greatly exceed the tonnage of shipping requisite to carry on the trade of the said Company; and whereas the building any more ships for their service, until those which are now employed, or building, to be employed as aforesaid, shall be reduced in tonnage to the quantity requisite for carrying on the said trade, will occasion an unnecessary consumption of oak-timber fit for building large ships, for remedy whereof, and for the more effectually securing a quantity of oak-timber of a proper growth for the use of the Royal Navy, be it enacted, &c. That "after the 18th of March, 1772, the Company are not to build any new ships, those now building excepted, until the tonnage of all the ships employed in the service, be reduced to 45,000 tons.—The Company not to charter or hire ships, unless built before the 18th of March, 1772. —That nothing herein before contained, shall be deemed, or construed to extend, to prohibit the said Company from building, contracting for, or hiring from time to time, during the continuance of this Act, any ship or ships whatsoever, in India, or in any of His Majesty's Colonies in America, for their use or service; or from building, contracting for, or hiring within this kingdom, during the continuance of this Act, any ship or ships not exceeding six in number in the whole, nor in burden 300 tons respectively, to be employed as packets or advice boats, in the said United Company's service; and that all such last-mentioned ships which shall be built in India, or in any of His Majesty's Colonies in America, shall be, to all intents and purposes, considered and deemed to be British-built ships, any law, usage, or custom to the contrary notwithstanding."

Some years after that period, the apprehension of the approaching scarcity of ship-timber, in consequence of the rapidly increasing number of ships built for the navy, and for purposes of commerce, became still greater, and a commission was issued, appointing a committee to enquire into the state of the woods and forests, and report upon the same. After full investigation, these commissioners confirmed the public alarm by their report, from which the following is an extract.—"On the whole, we shall not be thought to go beyond what is warranted by the information before us, when we form this conclusion, that if the prosperity of this country shall continue, the consumption of oak-timber for its internal purposes, and for the shipping necessary for the whole of our trade, including that of the East India Company, will at no very distant period furnish an ample demand for all that can be expected to be produced on the private property of this kingdom; and that such is the present state of growing timber, and

the prospect of future supply, that this country will, in all probability, experience a fatal want of great oak-timber, and become dependent on other powers for the means of supporting her navy, if care be not taken to provide a supply in future, by the improvement and better management of the royal forests, and to reduce the consumption of it by the utmost care and frugality in the expenditure."

This statement, with other circumstances, induced the East India Company to have recourse to some external aid for a supply of shipping for their commerce. Fortunately their own possessions in the East furnished them with the necessary supply. They accordingly took into their regular service several ships calculated for the China trade, and others as extra ships. They built on their own account two ships in India, one of 1200, the other of 800 tons; and gave permission for two large ships of 1200 tons to be built there on the bottoms of two of their regular ships; and with a view of ascertaining the capability of Pulo Pinang of furnishing ships of burthen for war or commerce, they ordered a frigate to be built there, and advertised for tenders for building a ship of 1200 tons for their China trade, which has since been completed.

The departure of the Company from the old established system of supplying the shipping for their Indian and China trade, though it militated against the interests of numerous classes in London, was sanctioned by the late Lord Melville, who, in his speech in the House of Commons, upon the subject of employing Indian-built shipping in the commerce between that country and England, on June 12, 1801, says—"The shipping of this country (England) he was certain would not be injured by the measure proposed. It was not against the Navigation Act, as that allowed every country to import into Great Britain its own produce in its own shipping. Why then should this privilege be withheld from India? Was it because it was a province of our mighty empire, and that whatever increases its prosperity, serves to add to, and fortify our own? He was so far from feeling any jealousy with respect to the admission of India ships into our ports, that he still hoped to see our dockyards filled with ships of war built in that country. Since our commerce had increased beyond the means of carrying it on, he, for one, could not see the policy of diminishing those means. He had thought long and deliberately upon this subject, and was now rivetted to the opinions which he expressed."

The following account of the cost and outfit of a new ship of 800 tons and 1200 tons respectively, for India and China, in the years 1796 and 1810, will shew the increased price of all articles connected with shipping during that period.

ARTICLES OF OUTFIT.	Ship of 800 tons.		Ship of 1200 tons.	
	1796.	1810.	1796.	1810.
	£	£	£	£
Building, with interest of money advanced to builders	14,776	22,390	22,803	33,585
Amount of Coppering	1,864	3,122	2,347	3,914
Ditto.....Mastmaker	1,195	2,620	1,437	3,909
Ditto.....Ropemaker	3,000	4,068	3,990	5,888
Ditto.....Sailmaker	1,320	2,400	1,546	3,000
Ditto.....Blockmaker	340	485	426	610
Ditto.....Boat-builder	131	190	151	220
Ditto.....Cooper	273	552	334	667
Ditto.....Kentledge	656	707	1,040	1,058
Ditto.....Gunpowder and Shot	763	1,398	899	1,626
Ditto.....Anchors	463	534	627	818
Ditto.....Provisions	3,139	4,235	3,913	5,271
Ditto.....Boatswain's, Carpenter's, Gunner's, Cook's, and Surgeon's stores	967	1,474	1,019	1,642
Ditto.....Owner's, Commander's, and Overseer's Disbursements	1,117	1,586	1,253	1,917
Total	30,004	45,761	41,785	64,125
Average per ton	£37 10s.	£57 5s.	£34 10s.	£53 10s.

The following is a view of the present state of the law as to the requisites which constitute a British built ship, or a British ship, and what regards the registry and certificate of such ships. The leading points of this subject depend on the Act of 26th Geo. III. c. 60, entitled "an Act for the further increase and encouragement of shipping and navigation."

British-built Ships.—"A British-built ship is such as has been built in Great Britain or Ireland, Guernsey, Jersey, or the Isle of Man, or in some of the colonies, plantations, islands, or territories in Asia, Africa, or America, which at the time of building the ship belonged to, or were in the possession of His Majesty; or any ship whatsoever which has been taken and condemned as lawful prize."

Except such British-built ships as shall be rebuilt or repaired in any foreign port or place, to an amount exceeding fifteen shillings per ton, unless such repairs shall be proved to have been necessary to enable the ship to perform her voyage.

This rule and exception are contained in the first and second section of the Act.

British Ships.—"A British ship is such foreign-built ship, as, before May 1, 1786, was wholly British owned, or was built or rebuilt on a foreign made keel, or bottom, and since registered. After the above described ships are worn out, there will in law be no British ship but such as is British-built, or condemned as prize."

Registry and Certificate.—"Every ship or vessel having a deck, or being of the burden of 15 tons, and belonging to a subject in Great Britain or Ireland, Guernsey, Jersey, or the Isle of Man, or any colony, plantation, island, or territory to His Majesty belonging, must be registered by the person claiming property therein, who is to obtain a certificate of such registry in the port to which the ship or vessel properly belongs; and the certificate is to distinguish her under one of these two classes—certificates of British plantation registry; or certificates of foreign ships registry for the European trade, British property."

"No ship is to be permitted to clear out as a British-built, or a British ship, nor to be entitled to the privileges of a British-built, or a British ship, unless the owner has obtained a certificate of registry; and any ship departing from port without being so registered, and obtaining such a certificate, shall be forfeited."

"All ships not entitled to the privileges of a British-built ship, or a British ship, and all ships not registered as aforesaid, are deemed, although they may belong to British subjects, to all intents and purposes, alien or foreign ships."

Change of Master.—"As often as the master of a ship is changed, a memorandum thereof is to be endorsed on the certificate by the proper officer of the customs."

Name of Ship.—"The owner is to cause the name by which a ship is registered, to be painted in a conspicuous part of the stern, and such name is not to be changed."

Registry anew.—"If a certificate of registry is lost or mislaid, or if a ship shall be altered in form or burden, or from any denomination of vessel to another, by rigging or fitting, she must be registered *de novo*, and a new certificate granted."

Production of Certificate.—"Masters of ships are, on demand, to produce their certificates to the principal officer in any port within the King's dominions, or to the British Consul or chief officer in any foreign ports."

Master and Mariners.—"No ship or vessel which is registered, or which is required by law to be registered, as a British ship or vessel, shall be navigated but by a master, and three-fourths at least of the mariners, British subjects." By the Act of 43 Geo. III. c. 64, "Merchants' ships or vessels may be navigated by three-fourths foreign seamen, and one-fourth British."

Under the head of Prince of Wales's Island, will be shewn the expence of ship-building at the different parts of India, *viz.* Bombay, Bengal, and Prince of Wales's Island, with some further remarks on the subject of employing Indian-built shipping in the commerce between Great Britain and India.

COMPANY'S IMPORTS FROM EUROPE.

An account shewing the invoice amount of all goods, stores, and bullion imported by the East India Company into Bengal from 1792-3 to 1808-9 inclusive; likewise an account of the sums received for sales of import goods and stores during the same period; together with the prime cost of goods and stores remaining on hand at the end of each respective year.

Years.	AMOUNT IMPORTED.				Sums received for Sales.	Invoice Amount of Goods on Hand.
	Woollens.	Goods and Stores.	Bullion.	Total.		
	£	£	£	£	£	£
1792-3	40,418	108,501	——	148,919	128,836	34,700
1793-4	27,107	184,493	——	211,600	132,406	199,275
1794-5	48,818	154,784	——	203,602	182,950	86,308
1795-6	54,139	162,221	——	216,360	205,137	56,251
1796-7	58,241	152,641	——	210,882	178,941	109,401
1797-8	80,779	176,080	——	256,859	164,183	43,537
1798-9	86,229	162,198	101,015	349,442	217,501	71,499
1799-0	71,572	324,944	——	396,816	203,233	68,920
1800-1	65,687	328,785	225,375	539,847	209,336	104,550
1801-2	67,408	390,767	314,232	772,407	254,758	186,733
1802-3	72,236	334,823	1,016,543	1,423,602	245,256	342,731
1803-4	72,986	197,639	592,044	862,669	260,548	343,310
1804-5	57,203	320,232	1,146,632	1,524,067	265,350	328,430
1805-6	52,494	217,405	501,401	771,300	290,397	245,282
1806-7	81,976	364,576	——	446,552	268,986	210,052
1807-8	75,830	335,133	200,921	611,884	218,041	317,124
1808-9	51,816	403,522	——	455,338	176,481	477,281
Total.	1,085,239	4,218,744	4,098,163	9,402,146	3,602,340	

Of the goods imported, the greatest proportion consisted of woollens of the following sorts:

Broad cloth, fine & superfine	Embossed cloth, fine & coarse.	Broad cloth, double colours.
Ladies' cloth, ditto.	Embossed long ells, ditto.	Blankets, fine and coarse.
Cassimeres, ditto.	Welch and other flannels.	Shalloons.
Perpets, fine and ordinary.	Camblets.	Perpetuanos.

Of the staple commodities there were imported in the season 1801-2 the under-mentioned quantities:

Lead	£15,178	Steel	£2,908
Iron	9,620	Naval and garrison stores	52,350
Copper	122,665	Sundries	5,154

By the above statement it appears that the invoice amount of the goods imported into Bengal, including a charge of 10 per cent. added to the prime cost, to cover contingent expences, such as freight, insurance, interest of money, &c. in 17 years, 1792-3 to 1808-9 inclusive, was £5,303,983

That the sum received for goods sold during the above period was	£3,602,340	
That there remained in the warehouses in 1808-9, at the invoice amount	403,581	
That there were lost in various ships during the 17 years, about	288,775	
		4,294,696
Leaving a deficiency in the 17 years, 1792-3 to 1808-9, of		£1,009,287

COMPANY'S EXPORTS TO EUROPE.

An account shewing the prime cost of goods exported from Bengal to Europe on account of the East India Company, with the commercial charges thereon, from the years 1792-3 to 1808-9 inclusive.

Years.	Current Rupees.	Commercial Charges.	Total.
	Prime Cost.	Current Rupees.	Current Rupees.
1792-3	114,00,151	8,01,851	122,02,002
1793-4	111,44,320	8,37,354	119,81,674
1794-5	117,24,760	9,81,220	127,05,980
1795-6	127,72,224	9,52,203	137,24,427
1796-7	76,72,037	9,96,161	86,68,198
1797-8	162,18,789	9,37,630	171,56,419
1798-9	55,90,404	9,16,915	65,07,319
1799-0	94,47,332	11,02,423	105,49,755
1800-1	72,80,565	10,56,484	83,37,049
1801-2	48,56,602	10,04,961	58,61,563
1802-3	96,61,500	10,62,377	107,23,877
1803-4	105,78,916	10,60,713	116,39,629
1804-5	79,62,704	11,44,935	91,07,639
1805-6	34,65,190	8,82,141	43,47,331
1806-7	49,86,130	8,35,691	58,21,821
1807-8	74,53,765	8,28,408	82,82,173
1808-9	——	8,49,258	8,49,258
Total.	1422,15,389	162,50,725	1584,66,114

The articles of which the Company's exports from Bengal usually consist, are piece-goods, raw silk, saltpetre, sugar, and hemp: all of which individuals are permitted to trade in, saltpetre excepted, which the Company reserve to themselves. Indigo has occasionally formed a part of the Company's investments. The following is a list of the articles of which the Company's exports consisted in 1796.

Piece-goods	£698,740	Saltpetre	£36,456
Raw silk	221,644	Sugar	134,197
Indigo	137,148	Sundries and charges	25,115

exclusive of 12,681 tons of rice, laden on their account, the invoice amount of which was £58,419.

The commercial charges comprise the salaries and allowances of the Board of Trade, with those of the aurungs or factories where the investments are provided; and also the charge of the import warehouse, or the departments where the goods exported from England to India are deposited and sold. The Board of Trade also superintends the provision and sale of the two important articles of internal trade, which the Government of India preserves exclusively for the benefit of the state, viz. salt and opium. This Board has likewise the controul over the greatest part of the department of the customs, and it has likewise the direction of the marine.

From the foregoing statements it appears that the value of goods and stores imported into Bengal from England by the East India Company, in the years 1792-3 to 1808-9 inclusive, was..... £5,303,983

Value of goods exported from Bengal to England during the same period, including the commercial charges, was ..... Current Rupees 15,84,66,114, which, at 2s. each, is..... 15,846,611

Exports exceed the imports 10,542,628

Treasure imported into Bengal by the East India Company during the same period..... 4,098,163

Balance *in favour* of Bengal in seventeen years £14,640,791

RECAPITULATION OF IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The following is an abstract of the merchandise and treasure imported into and exported from Bengal, including the East India Company's, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive.

FROM WHENCE.	IMPORTS.			EXPORTS.		
	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
Company from London...	141,72,560	260,52,960	402,25,520	333,12,237	——	333,12,237
Individuals from London	191,21,369	44,85,165	236,06,534	460,13,908	——	460,13,908
Foreign Europe	39,30,216	96,10,403	135,40,619	147,11,409	6,300	147,17,709
United States of America	38,02,132	268,50,736	306,52,868	301,39,817	1,32,508	302,72,325
British Asia.....	79,19,866	15,44,441	94,64,307	402,11,818	15,46,732	417,58,550
Foreign Asia	189,46,628	219,59,821	409,06,449	547,17,192	2,62,023	549,79,215
Total.... Sicca Rupees	678,92,771	905,03,526	1583,96,297	2191,06,381	19,47,563	2210,53,944

From the preceding accounts of the commerce carried on at this Presidency by the East India Company and individuals, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive, it appears,

I. That the value of merchandise imported by the East India Company from London during the above period of five years, is about four-fifths that of individuals, nearly four times that of Foreign Europe, nearly four times that of the United States of America, and that the amount of treasure imported by them, is more by one-half than that of merchandise.

II. That the value of merchandise imported by individuals from London, during the above period, is one-third more than that of the East India Company, five times that of Foreign Europe, five times that of the United States of America, and that the amount of treasure imported by them is not one-fourth that of merchandise.

III. That the value of merchandise imported by the East India Company and individuals is above eight times that of either Foreign Europe or America, nearly five times that of both Foreign Europe and America united, and that the amount of treasure imported from the latter places is about one-fifth more than that imported by the East India Company and individuals.

IV. That the value of merchandise imported into Bengal from the British territories in India, and from various other parts of India, under the head of Foreign Asia, which is called the country trade, from being carried on in Indian ships, and with Indian capital, is about one-fourth less than that imported by the East India Company and individuals, about seven times that of Foreign Europe or the United States of America, and that the treasure imported is nearly equal to that of merchandise.

V. That the value of merchandise exported by the East India Company to London, is about three-fourths that of individuals, more than double that of Foreign Europe, and about one-tenth more than that of the United States of America.

VI. That the value of merchandise exported to London by the East India Company and individuals, is nearly double that of Foreign Europe, and the United States of America together.

VII. That the value of merchandise exported to the various parts of the British territories in India and Foreign Asia, is about one-sixth more than that to London, nearly seven times that to Foreign Europe, and three times that to the United States of America, and that it withdraws one thirteenth part of the treasure imported from British and Foreign Asia.

COMPANY'S IMPORTS INTO ALL PARTS OF INDIA.

The following is an account, shewing the invoice amount of all goods, stores, and bullion, imported by the East India Company into their several Presidencies and settlements of Bengal, Madras, Bombay, Bencoolen, and Prince of Wales's Island from London, in the years 1792–3 to 1808–9 inclusive; likewise the amount received for sales of import goods, and the quantity remaining on hand at the end of each year.

Years.	AMOUNT OF IMPORTS.				Sums received for Sales.	Goods remaining at Prime Cost.
	Woollens.	Other Goods.	Bullion.	Total.		
	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.	£.
1792–3	111,860	256,971	10,998	379,829	335,955	158,537
1793–4	70,767	396,277	10,208	477,342	309,372	341,628
1794–5	169,436	237,163	——	406,599	418,734	197,871
1795–6	184,984	470,111	——	655,095	390,151	188,740
1796–7	148,464	461,870	20,784	631,118	356,937	320,922
1797–8	167,271	463,884	219,405	850,560	565,383	228,412
1798–9	215,734	416,273	723,984	1,355,991	529,305	370,828
1799–0	224,134	540,738	121,439	886,311	684,468	280,220
1800–1	282,798	494,002	583,471	1,361,171	482,477	341,484
1801–2	249,781	838,509	439,517	1,527,807	412,036	498,149
1802–3	183,932	849,767	1,148,271	2,181,970	527,292	573,874
1803–4	160,863	513,198	801,340	1,475,401	638,949	1,122,208
1804–5	162,591	610,565	1,750,370	2,523,526	627,953	1,068,836
1805–6	220,618	558,311	501,401	1,280,330	677,998	935,733
1806–7	252,230	943,900	——	1,196,130	644,211	797,577
1807–8	210,062	763,602	200,921	1,174,585	596,248	820,939
1808–9	342,272	660,652	——	1,002,924	706,599	1,004,291
Total.	3,357,797	9,376,693	6,532,169	19,266,689	8,904,068	

The woollens suitable to each market are enumerated under the head of the respective Presidencies. Of the other commodities in which the Company trade, the imports of 1798–9 were

Copper	£122,700	Naval and garrison stores	£196,004
Lead	24,180	Tin	937
Iron	30,006	Pitch, tar, deals, &c.	23,340
Steel	6,530	Sundries	11,686

By a clause in the charter granted to the East India Company by King William, and by various subsequent Acts of Parliament, they are obliged to export goods of the produce or manufacture of Great Britain to a specific amount. Woollens are the only articles the Company reserve to themselves, which, with metals, and naval and garrison stores, form the whole of their exports from England. By the foregoing statement it appears that woollens constitute one-third of the whole amount of goods imported into all their Presidencies; and the markets have occasionally been so glutted with them, that they have remained years in the warehouses before an opportunity offered of disposing of them.

From the foregoing statement it appears that the invoice amount of goods and stores exported from England to India in the years 1792–3 to 1808–9, including a charge of 10 per cent. to cover contingent expences, such as freight, insurance, interest of money, &c. was..... £12,534,490

That the amount received for goods sold at the Presidencies, was	£8,904,068	
There remained in the Company's warehouses unsold, at the end of 1808–9.....	1,004,291	
There was lost by capture or shipwreck during the same period.....	335,893	
The above amount includes the consignments to Bencoolen and Pulo Pinang....	458,307	
		10,702,559
Balance to be accounted for.....		£2,131,931

There is great difficulty in making up a correct statement, from the impracticability of ascertaining with precision the final disposal of military and marine stores, which have formed a very material part of the exports of the East India Company to India. On the arrival of the consignments from England, the cargoes of the ships are distributed to the departments to which they respectively belong; the goods for use and sale to the commercial, and the stores to the military or marine departments. An account of the sums received at the different Presidencies for sales of import goods and stores has been annually presented to Parliament. In this account is comprised with the sales, the expenditure of the stores, in so far as the amount of such expenditure has been included in the charges at the several Presidencies. A portion of the stores, consisting of guns for the garrison, and arms and accoutrements, falls into the dead stock, and a portion falls into the quick stock; but from being blended with the stores purchased in the country, and not distinguished in the accounts, it is not practicable to make the separation which is desirable, otherwise than by some general estimate. With respect to stores expended upon service, great allowance should be made for the deficiency of accurate statements, when the political state of India, and the extensive warfare within the period in contemplation are considered.

It appears that the value of stores at the different Presidencies, commonly called quick stock, was increased, since the year 1792-3 to 1808-9, £951,519; what proportion of these stores is European, cannot be ascertained; assuming two-thirds to be of this description, gives £634,346 accordingly. The short deliveries, and damages, which are chargeable to the owners of the ships on which the consignments are made, are deducted from the freight on settling the ships' accounts in England, subject to an additional charge of 30 per cent. on the invoice amount, agreeably to the terms of the charter parties. This may be estimated at 5 per cent. which, on the amount of goods shipped, is £641,725; these two sums deducted from the above balance, leaves £885,860 still unaccounted for. Of this a considerable part would certainly be found in the dead stock, and some in the consignments made to Bencoolen and Prince of Wales's Island; and a large allowance should be made for damage and waste of the large stock of goods on hand: but the remainder must be left to conjecture, and is supposed to have been expended on service without being distinctly accounted for, or consigned from one Presidency to another, and not included in the amount sold.

The Act of 1793 requiring the Company to furnish individuals with whatever tonnage they required, gave those who were anxious to embark in the trade to the East Indies, an opportunity of so doing, and it was expected that, by opening the trade outward, the British manufacturers would have immediate access to the Indian markets, without seeking it through intermediate channels, and that large consignments of goods would constantly be made to India on their own immediate accounts, under the idea of obtaining the merchant's as well as the manufacturer's profit; but it appears that the manufacturers declined giving up the solid advantages they had so long enjoyed, of supplying the Company, and the commanders and officers of their shipping, for the chance of a distant and precarious market. It, however, enabled the merchants of India to make their indents direct to their agents in London, instead of receiving their supplies, as usual, through the private trade of the commanders and officers; and though the amount of the tonnage required in England in 12 years, 1793-4 to 1804-5, was only 6552 tons, yet the goods imported thereon, and on such country ships as were occasionally laden from India, and permitted to return with European commodities, which since 1800 has seldom occurred, occasioned a material depression in the markets of India, and the forcing the goods to sale has been a great detriment to the Company, by the anticipation of their regular and periodical sales of metals and woollens.

By reference to the foregoing statement it will be seen, that the value of goods remaining on hand between 1803-4 and 1808-9 was to an amount very far exceeding that of the antecedent years, between 1792-3 and 1803-4, and what remained of the import goods on the 30th of April, 1809, was £1,004,291; from which it appears evident that the Indian markets have been supplied to the utmost extent of their demand by the Company and the private trade of the commanders and officers of their ships, exclusive of the consignments made by private traders.

COMPANY'S EXPORTS FROM ALL PARTS OF INDIA.

The following is a statement of the prime cost of goods shipped from all parts of India on account of the East India Company, in the years 1793–4 to 1809–10; the customs thereon; the freight and demurrage; the charges of merchandise, calculated at the rate of 5 per cent. on the sale amount; the total of prime cost and charges; the sale amount of goods; and the profit arising from the trade in each year during the same period.

Years.	Prime Cost, including Charges	Customs.	Freight and Demurrage.	Charges of Merchandise.	Total Cost and Charges.	Amount Sales.	Profit on the Trade.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1793–4	1,220,106	584,792	289,563	117,257	2,211,718	2,345,151	133,433
1794–5	1,288,059	571,074	290,673	130,571	2,280,377	2,611,522	331,145
1795–6	1,821,512	744,569	581,214	177,164	3,324,459	3,543,236	218,777
1796–7	1,708,379	856,204	556,669	169,777	3,291,029	3,395,564	104,535
1797–8	1,025,204	334,442	422,644	104,873	1,937,163	2,097,468	160,305
1798–9	2,019,365	1,154,876	777,903	233,169	4,185,213	4,663,390	478,177
1799–0	1,665,689	429,312	651,173	178,234	2,924,408	3,564,694	640,286
1800–1	2,013,975	201,817	837,423	198,940	3,252,155	3,978,800	726,645
1801–2	1,425,168	140,402	451,920	154,344	2,171,834	3,086,943	915,109
1802–3	1,133,526	71,337	490,900	114,463	1,810,226	2,316,384	497,158
1803–4	1,187,707	71,460	549,376	111,820	1,920,363	2,236,396	316,033
1804–5	1,088,400	68,268	371,355	97,651	1,625,674	1,953,026	327,352
1805–6	1,335,880	70,966	532,023	112,622	2,051,471	2,254,899	203,428
1806–7	986,310	47,471	443,258	73,604	1,550,643	1,472,074	Loss. 78,569
1807–8	897,119	36,948	542,117	65,310	1,539,794	1,310,215	Loss. 220,579
1808–9	1,413,740	57,189	418,070	87,887	1,576,886	1,757,754	180,868
1809–10	1,240,315	63,727	508,977	112,708	1,925,727	2,254,164	328,437
Total.	23,060,334	5,553,954	8,724,258	2,240,594	39,579,140	44,841,680	5,262,540

By the above statement it appears that, after the year 1798–9, the customs paid upon the goods imported, amounted to much less than in former years. Previous to that period, the whole of the customs duty, whether on goods exported, or for home consumption, was paid by the Company, and the greater part of the duty on goods exported, was drawn back by the merchant; consequently the whole amount of the duty paid by the Company, was included in the sale value. In the year 1799 an Act was passed, allowing East India goods to be warehoused, subject to the payment of a comparatively small rate of duty. No further duty is payable on goods exported, and the home consumption duties are paid by the purchasers. The sale value, therefore, since 1798–9 included only the amount of the warehousing duty. The sum inserted in the column of customs, is not the entire revenue derived from the Company's trade with India, the greatest part being paid by the purchasers, on clearing the goods for home consumption.

The commercial charges which are included in the above account of prime cost, amounted during the above period to £2,916,279. The greater part of these charges arise from the maintenance of various subordinate factories and surungs which have been established for the provision of the Company's investments. These subordinate factories, with their dependencies, were, generally speaking, erected by the Company in the early period of their establishment in India, when the cost of such buildings was cheaper than it has since become, and the profits on the Indian trade greater. They were made sufficiently substantial and spacious to be a security for the property contained in them, and a comfortable residence for the European servants of the Company. These places became the first seats of the manufactures of the country; for the Company, in consequence of being a permanent body, gave employment to the

manufacturers all the year round, and from year to year; by which means workmen continued attached to them from father to son, and from this continuity, as well as from the taste of Europe for finer fabrics than were in general used by the natives, the best standard of qualities was established and upheld by those factors. In consequence also of this system of permanency, the Company did not, upon every change of taste in Europe, immediately discontinue employing the workmen of a particular article which had fallen a little out of fashion, because these workmen could not turn themselves easily to another line; and since the Company have possessed territory, it has also been generally found expedient to uphold as much as possible the provision of the Company's investments, because a failure in the usual advances for it was found to effect the revenues, most of the manufacturers being also occupiers of land.

The amount of these charges, including the salaries of the European agents at the subordinate factories, has been reckoned in Bengal about 7 or 8 per cent. on the homeward investment. The Boards of Trade, and the officers immediately under them, at the different Presidencies, whose establishments are included in the commercial charges, transact other business besides those of the homeward investment. The investments from Europe are also managed by those Boards; besides which, the Bengal Board of Trade manages the branches of salt and opium, and superintends the departments of marine and customs.

The freight and demurrage charged upon the sales, comprehend the whole amount paid both for the outward and homeward cargoes; the charges are by estimate, being 5 per cent. on the gross amount of sales, and which may be considered as a set-off against the Company's general expences.

From the foregoing statement it appears that the amount of goods and stores imported into the different Presidencies in India from England, in the years 1792-3 to 1808-9 inclusive, was	£12,834,490
The prime cost of goods exported from India to England during the same period, was	23,060,334
The exports from India exceeded the imports	10,225,844
Treasure imported into India from England during the same period	6,532,199
Balance *in favour* of India in seventeen years	£16,758,043

being on an average, £985,767 per annum.

It also appears that the prime cost of goods imported into England, including commercial charges, from the British settlements in India in 17 years, 1792-3 to 1808-9 inclusive, was	£23,060,334
That the above goods sold at the Company's sales in London for	44,841,680
The sale amount exceeded the prime cost during that period, the sum of	21,781,346

which may be considered as clear profit to the nation, being thus appropriated, *viz.*

Customs paid from the Company's treasury on the goods	£5,553,954
Freight and demurrage estimated to have been paid on them	8,724,258
Charges in England, estimated at 5 per cent. on the sale amount	2,240,594
Balance accruing to the Company, after paying the above costs and charges	5,262,540

Exclusive of the heavy losses which occurred in the Company's shipping on the homeward bound voyage, the prime cost of the cargoes of ships lost and taken during the same period, amounted to £1,027,209.

The articles which composed the foregoing amount of sales, £44,841,680, were as follow:—

Piece-goods	£26,171,125	Alkali	£3,585
Organzine silk	228,727	Spices	1,974,099
Pepper	3,322,835	Sugar, indigo, &c.	5,031,516
Saltpetre	3,060,956	Coffee	113,617

The remainder, £4,933,220, consisted of raw silk, the account of which is blended with that of China.

RECAPITULATION OF THE COMMERCE OF THE BRITISH SETTLEMENTS.

The following is an abstract of the merchandise and treasure imported into, and exported from, the British settlements, including the East India Company's, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive.

FROM WHENCE.	IMPORTS.			EXPORTS.		
	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
Company from London...	356,47,800	336,11,056	692,58,856	458,54,424	——	458,54,424
Individuals from London	321,66,269	102,71,689	424,37,958	557,14,559	992	557,15,551
Foreign Europe	71,91,937	153,83,376	225,75,313	177,01,548	6,300	177,07,848
United States of America	49,36,963	313,97,514	363,34,477	337,03,600	1,54,176	338,57,776
British Asia.....	1500,11,922	126,47,673	1626,59,595	1285,30,235	177,62,384	1462,92,619
Foreign Asia	763,33,458	711,22,958	1474,56,416	1583,13,580	59,42,312	1642,55,892
Total..... Sicca Rupees	3062,88,349	1744,34,266	4807,22,615	4398,17,946	238,66,164	4636,84,110

From the above statement it appears that the value of merchandise imported into the British settlements from all parts of the world, including the East India Company's, in five years, was..... Sicca Rupees 3062,88,349

That the value of the merchandise exported from the British settlements was 4398,17,946

The exports of merchandise exceed the imports..... 1335,29,597

Amount of treasure imported into the British settlements during the same period 1,744,34,266

Amount of treasure exported from ditto 238,66,164

—— 1505,68,102

Balance in *favour* of the British settlements in five years .....Sicca Rupees 840,97,699

which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £35,512,212 7s. 6d. on an average of five years, £7,102,442 9s. 6d. per ann.

It also appears, from the foregoing statements of the commerce of the British settlements,

I. That the merchandise imported by the East India Company in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive, is five times that of all Foreign Europe, and nearly eight times that of the United States of America, and that the amount of treasure imported by them is nearly equal to that of merchandise.

II. That the merchandise imported by individuals is nearly equal to that of the East India Company, above four times that of Foreign Europe, and nearly seven times that of the United States of America, and that the amount of treasure imported by them is not one-third that of merchandise.

III. That the merchandise imported from Foreign Europe is about one-ninth part of that imported from London, that the treasure imported is about one-third of that from London, and that the amount of treasure is more than double that of merchandise.

IV. That the merchandise imported from the United States is about one thirteenth of that imported from London, and about one-half of that imported from Foreign Europe; and that the treasure imported from America is nearly seven times that of the merchandise.

V. That the merchandise exported by the East India Company to London, is nearly three times that of Foreign Europe, about one-third more than that of America; and that the merchandise exported by individuals, is about one-fourth more than that of the East India Company.

VI. That the merchandise exported by the East India Company and individuals to London, is about six times that of Foreign Europe, three times that of the United States of America, and about double that of all parts of Foreign Europe and the United States of America together.

REVENUES AND DISBURSEMENTS.

The following is an account of the Revenues of the East India Company at the Presidency of Bengal; likewise of the charges and disbursements (exclusive of commercial charges); the interest payable on the debt due at the Presidency; the surplus revenue; and the amount of the debt in each year, 1792-3 to 1808-9 inclusive.

Years.	Revenues.	Charges.	Interest on Debt.	Total of Charges and Interest.	Surplus Revenue.	Debt.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
1792–3	5,512,761	3,425,300	448,559	3,873,859	1,638,902	5,657,846
1793–4	5,871,945	3,354,736	359,424	3,714,160	2,157,785	5,803,928
1794–5	5,937,931	3,464,144	399,422	3,863,566	2,074,365	5,605,872
1795–6	5,694,194	3,636,193	350,551	3,986,744	1,707,450	5,597,660
1796–7	5,703,906	3,774,319	352,325	4,126,644	1,577,262	6,206,394
1797–8	5,782,741	3,943,116	408,810	4,351,926	1,430,815	7,673,018
1798–9	6,153,615	3,912,999	505,955	4,416,954	1,736,661	8,991,165
1799–0	6,498,473	4,437,463	621,198	5,058,661	1,439,812	9,861,146
1800–1	6,658,334	4,702,400	718,566	5,420,966	1,237,368	11,575,427
1801–2	7,127,988	4,733,478	913,937	5,647,415	1,480,573	12,193,080
1802–3	8,380,087	4,914,105	884,753	5,798,858	2,581,229	12,472,324
1803–4	8,060,993	5,354,321	839,317	6,193,638	1,867,355	14,295,685
1804–5	9,336,707	6,508,200	956,091	7,464,291	1,872,416	16,749,077
1805–6	9,542,430	7,719,944	1,212,014	8,931,958	610,472	18,943,844
1806–7	9,160,149	7,847,604	1,444,222	9,291,826	Def.131,677	19,976,354
1807–8	9,97[illegible],695	6,371,843	1,389,077	7,760,920	2,210,775	20,650,862
1808–9	5,816,458	6,476,986	1,421,938	7,898,924	1,917,534	20,286,646

By the above statement, it appears that the revenues of this Presidency exceeded the charges in the 17 years, 1792-3 to 1808-9 inclusive, £27,409,107, being on an average £1,612,300 per annum.

The following are the particulars of the revenues and disbursements in 1808-9.

REVENUES.

Mint	£10,819
Post Office	34,800
Oude and ceded Provinces	1,694,131
Land	3,851,128
Judicial	104,831
Customs	516,509
Salt	1,815,822
Opium	594,978
Stamps	81,633
Conquered Provinces	1,111,807
Revenues in 1808-9	£9,816,458

CHARGES.

Mint	£33,955
Post Office	31,690
Oude and ceded Provinces	408,320
Civil charges in general	600,906
Supreme Court and Law	46,400
Adawluts, &c.	546,567
Military	2,990,573
Marine	75,082
Buildings and fortifications	34,800
Revenue	524,086
Customs	70,760
Salt advancer, and charges	406,000
Opium ditto	100,920
Stamps	10,642
Conquered Provinces	596,285
Charges in 1808-9	£7,898,924

COMPANY'S ASSETS.

An account of the assets belonging to the East India Company at the Presidency at Bengal, on the 30th of April in each year, from 1792–3 to 1808–9 inclusive.

Years.	Cash and Bills.	Stores.	Debts, including advances for Invest.	Export Goods.	Import Goods.	Salt, Opium, Rum, Grain, and Cattle	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1792	996,693	427,752	1,080,366	278,785	47,717	150,489	2,981,802
1793	863,194	463,289	1,242,831	314,195	34,700	76,268	2,994,477
1794	716,281	481,111	1,185,763	447,438	199,275	62,648	3,092,516
1795	1,131,108	475,667	1,407,556	344,184	86,308	69,002	3,513,825
1796	1,003,852	445,658	1,413,891	258,478	56,251	163,200	3,341,330
1797	645,308	384,700	1,678,581	870,297	109,401	214,417	3,902,704
1798	754,002	542,770	1,599,124	296,002	43,537	252,657	3,488,092
1799	431,895	584,274	1,495,054	469,476	71,499	220,476	3,272,674
1800	611,919	648,512	1,622,069	363,715	68,920	311,431	3,626,566
1801	583,152	786,114	1,452,968	254,628	104,550	282,001	3,463,413
1802	667,019	727,106	1,531,458	247,847	186,733	284,395	3,644,558
1803	1,020,851	698,852	1,628,330	284,030	342,731	209,633	4,184,427
1804	1,058,247	725,670	1,922,534	435,537	343,310	271,145	4,756,443
1805	1,122,881	770,649	3,337,076	188,274	328,430	400,913	6,148,223
1806	1,256,489	667,491	2,981,533	283,219	245,282	408,102	5,842,116
1807	1,429,880	721,569	3,300,321	418,915	210,052	361,118	6,441,855
1808	3,103,459	646,861	1,665,795	290,617	317,124	509,945	6,533,796
1809	3,239,133	691,193	3,167,462	376,466	403,581	640,296	8,518,131

From the foregoing statement it appears that the debt owing by the East India Company at this Presidency in 1809, amounted to £20,286,646
That the amount of assets as above, was at the same period 8,518,131
The debts at this Presidency exceed the assets in the sum of £11,768,515

The Company are possessed of property to a considerable amount at this Presidency, which, from not being considered as immediately available, is not inserted in the above account. This property consists of plate, household furniture, guns on the ramparts, arms, and some descriptions of military stores. Buildings might also be mentioned; but the cost of them is supposed to have been included in the charges. These several articles, with the doubtful debts of the Company, are carried to an account termed dead stock. In many respects the articles so described, are, nevertheless, to be considered as real property; and in so far as they have not been included in the charges, in like manner with the buildings and fortifications, can only have been procured by the advance of funds, either in England or India.

By the Company's accounts drawn up annually, and presented to Parliament, it appears that up to March, 1810, the sum expended on buildings and fortifications for the acquisition and maintenance of their possessions, and the estimated value of other articles of dead stock at this Presidency, was as follows:

Buildings and fortifications £5,494,354
Plate, furniture, plantations, farms, vessels, stores, &c. 1,496,114
Forming a total at this Presidenc of £6,990,468

BENGAL GOVERNMENT SECURITIES.

The public securities of this Government are issued on paper, negotiable to order, and transferrable by endorsement, of the following descriptions, *viz.*

EIGHT PER CENT. LOAN.—Opened on April 24th, 1810, and closed the 31st of August following; notes issued bearing date September 1st, 1810. Interest payable half yearly, *viz.* 1st of September and 1st of March, at the treasury of Fort William, Fort St. George, or Bombay, either in cash, or (provided it amounts to a sum of not less than £50 sterling), by bills on the Court of Directors, at an exchange of 2s. 6d. per Sicca rupee, and payable at six months after sight. At Fort St. George the interest is paid at the exchange of 360 Arcot rupees, or 335,172 Sicca rupees per 100 Star pagodas; and at Bombay, at 108 Bombay rupees per 100 Sicca rupees; the holder of the notes at both Presidencies having the option of receiving the amount in a draft on Bengal, payable at sight. Principal payable in cash in Bengal only, according to the order in which the notes stand on the general register.

Subscriptions to this loan were received in the outstanding 8 per cent. obligations of the Bengal Government at par, and in those of the Governments of Fort St. George and Bombay, on application being made at the treasuries of those Presidencies respectively, at the rates of exchange above specified.

Notes of this loan, for any sum not less than 10,000 rupees, may be deposited, on application, in the hands of the Sub-Treasurer at either of the three Presidencies; and the interest accruing on the same, will be remitted by bills on the Court of Directors, agreeably to the instructions of the persons making the deposit.

FIRST SIX PER CENT. LOAN.—Opened the 31st of August, 1810, and closed the 31st of December following; notes issued bearing date January 1st, 1811. Interest at the rate of 6 per cent. per annum, payable on the 1st of January and 1st of July. The other conditions of the loan correspond with those of the foregoing, except that the interest may be received in bills on the Court of Directors, if it amount only to £45 sterling. The Government are not at liberty to pay off the principal without a previous notice of sixty days, to be given by advertisement; and notes to a smaller amount than 12,000 rupees, cannot be deposited in the hands of the Sub-Treasurer.

Subscriptions were received at par, in the 8 per cent. obligations of the Bengal Government; the certificates of the preceding 8 per cent. loan, and the 6 per cent. treasury notes of this Government, provided such securities had not been advertised for payment; also in the 8 per cent. obligations of the other Presidencies, at those Presidencies respectively, according to the rates of exchange already mentioned; and at Bombay only in cash, at par, or at the rate of 108 Bombay rupees for 100 Sicca rupees.

SECOND SIX PER CENT. LOAN.—Opened on the 31st of December, 1810, and continued open; notes issued, bearing date June 30th, 1811. Interest payable on the 30th of June, and 31st of December. The conditions of this loan differ from those of the preceding only in the bills for interest on the Court of Directors being payable twelve months after date; in the certificates issued from the treasury, bearing 8 per cent. interest, until the 30th of June; and in the notes not being received by the Sub-Treasurer, in deposit, except under certain regulations, hereafter detailed in Section VI.

All 8 per cent Government securities, and also the certificates of the first 6 per cent loan, are received in subscription to this loan, on the same terms as to the loan preceding; but no such securities will be received in subscription after the 30th of April. Subscriptions are also received at Fort William and Fort St. George, in cash, or Bengal treasury notes, at a premium of 2 per cent. and at Bombay in cash, at par.

TREASURY NOTES.—Treasury notes, bearing interest at the rate of 4 per cent. per annum, and payable in twelve months, or sooner, at the option of Government, have been issued since August 31st, 1810.

GOVERNMENT BILLS OF EXCHANGE.—Since the 26th of December, 1810, all accepted bills of exchange drawn on the Governor-General in Council, are discounted on application at the treasury, at the rate of 4 per cent per annum.

SINKING FUND.—The operations of this fund are suspended so long as the Government securities continue to bear a premium. At other times the sinking fund committee meet at the Accountant-General's office every Monday and Thursday, and receive sealed tenders for the sale of such securities. A sum of 200,000 rupees was formerly appropriated to the purposes of this fund monthly.

TREASURY FEES.—A fee of one rupee is paid on the renewal of all Government promissory notes, when such renewal becomes necessary, in consequence of there being no longer room to execute receipts for interest. On the renewal of promissory notes at the application of the proprietor, under any other circumstances than those stated in the foregoing clause—

Note not exceeding 1,000 rupees ..... 1 rupee	Note not exceeding 4,000 rupees ..... 4 rupees
Ditto ..... 2,000 ditto ..... 2 ditto	Ditto exceeding.... 5,000 ditto ..... 5 ditto
Ditto ..... 3,000 ditto ..... 3 ditto	

On the subdivision of any of the public securities, a fee of five rupees is levied on each note taken out by the party applying for the subdivision.

No fee whatever is levied on the consolidation of such securities.

For each bill of exchange drawn on a provincial treasury, a fee is levied in proportion to the amount, according to the same rates as are established above, for the assessment of fees on renewal of promissory notes.

Regulations authorizing the Officers of Government to officiate as Agents in the Management of the Government Securities.

By a proclamation of Government, dated December 31, 1810, the Accountant-General and Sub-Treasurer are authorized to act, under the responsibility of the Company, as agents of the public creditors of Government, for the purposes hereinafter specified, *viz.*

1. To receive charge of, and grant receipt for, any loan obligation, on application from the proprietor.

2. To receive the interest as it becomes due on such obligations, and, according to the instructions of the proprietor, either to remit the amount to England, in bills on the Court of Directors, (if the interest shall be payable in such bills), to remit it by drafts on the Treasurers of Fort St. George or Bombay, on the collectors at any of the stations subordinate to this Presidency, or on the resident at Delhi or Lucknow, according to the current rates of exchange; or to pay the same in cash at the Presidency to any person whom the proprietor may appoint. Persons having more than one note in deposit, may give separate instructions regarding the interest on each note; but the whole of the interest on each note must be received in the same manner, and at the same time. When the proprietor may wish to make any change in his instructions, he is required to notify the same one month before the interest falls due.

3. In the event of the principal becoming payable, to receive the same, and, according to instructions of the proprietor, to pay the amount to such person as he may appoint, or to reinvest the same in any other loan which may be open, or in the purchase of other Government securities at the market price.

4. To subscribe the notes deposited to any loans into which it may be receivable, on the proprietor's instructing them to that effect, even though such notes may not be in a course of payment.

5. To receive remittances of any sums, not less than 1,000 rupees, in Government bills payable at the treasury, and to invest the amount in other securities, according to the instructions of the proprietor.

6. To invest the interest accruing on paper deposited, on receiving instructions to that effect.

7. To indorse over notes deposited, as attorney for the owner, on receiving authority from him so to do, to such person as he may direct; or to sell the same, and pay over the amount, provided that the whole of

each note be payable in one sum and to one person. The proceeds of paper so sold, cannot, however, be reinvested; and the fees due under these regulations, will be deducted before the amount is paid.

8. In the event of Government granting a remittance of the principal, to remit the same by bills on the Court of Directors, on receiving instructions from the proprietor of the paper to that effect.

Any person depositing Government securities under the above regulations, shall at all times be at liberty to withdraw the same, on payment of such fees as may be due.

In all cases where the public officers above mentioned may be authorized to invest money in Government securities, they will invest as nearly as possible the whole amount, but are in no cases to exceed it. Such fractional sums as may remain above the amount invested, will be payable on demand at the treasury, to the order of the proprietor.

The responsibility of the Company is strictly confined to the cases above specified, and to transactions conducted according to the prescribed forms which are kept at the different Presidencies, and at the India House.

The following are the established rates of commission to be paid to the Accountant-General and Sub-Treasurer, on the several transactions above specified, *viz.*

I. On the receipt, remittance, or investment, ¼ per cent. on the whole transaction. No commission, however, is chargeable on remittance to England of the interest on the notes of any loan prior to the 31st of December, 1810.

II. On the remittance of the principal, (should that hereafter be granted), four annas per mill.

III. On receiving any sum under 10,000 rupees in deposit, a fee of five rupees; if above, ten rupees.

IV. On transferring securities to a new loan, on receiving payment of the same, and then subscribing the amount to a new loan, one rupee per mill.

V. On receiving remittances by bills, and subscribing the amount to a loan, ¼ per cent.

VI. On receiving the same, and investing it in Government securities by purchase, ¼ per cent.

VII. On the sale of notes, and payment of the amount to order, ¼ per cent.

VIII. On indorsing notes for any sum under 10,000 rupees, when the sale is not effected by the Accountant-General and Sub-Treasurer, a fee of five rupees; if above 10,000 rupees, ten rupees.

The above fees or commissions are to be deducted from the first interest which may be received after such fees or commission shall have become due; and in the event of such deduction being then omitted, it cannot afterwards be made.

Government reserves to itself the liberty of withdrawing the authority granted by the above regulations to the Accountant-General and Sub-Treasurer, on giving two years' notice to that effect; in which case, however, any Government securities which may have been deposited, shall be kept in safe custody at the treasury, until claimed by the proprietor.

A great part of the Indian debt having been contracted under the option to the lender of receiving payment first of the interest, and finally of the principal in England, bills were drawn in payment of the decennial loans falling due in 1809 and 1810 to the amount of £2,236,188, but the principal part of them have been renewed at a diminished interest, and without the optional cause. And there is reason to believe that less of the debt would have been transferred to England if, when payment was tendered in India, all the principals had been there; because the private agents could not exercise the discretion, which principals might have used, of continuing in the Company's hands, instead of remitting to England the payments tendered. The Court of Directors have therefore issued orders calculated to remedy this inconvenience, and to prevent its recurrence in future, as also to encourage the creditors of the Company, who have returned, or may return to Europe, to continue their property in the Company's hands, by making the Company's government the agents for the safe custody of their bonds, and the regular transmission of the interest to England by bills on the Court of Directors. Though the transfer of a part of the Indian debt occasions a severe pressure on the finances at home, it improves the Company's affairs, as it produces an immediate reduction of interest of from 3 to 5 per cent.

REVENUES AND DISBURSEMENTS IN ALL PARTS OF INDIA.

The following is an account of the Company's revenues in all parts of India, likewise of the charges and disbursements, (exclusive of commercial charges): the interest payable on the debt; the surplus revenue, or surplus charge in each year; and the amount of the Indian debt in each year, 1792-3 to 1808-9 inclusive.

Years.	Revenues.	Charges.	Interest on Debt.	Total of charges and Interest.	Surplus Revenue.	Surplus Charges.	Amount of Debt.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1792-3	8,225,628	6,304,307	636,226	7,007,050	1,218,578	——	7,971,665
1793-4	8,276,770	6,066,924	526,205	6,633,951	1,642,819	——	7,305,257
1794-5	8,026,193	6,083,507	484,301	6,629,888	1,396,305	——	6,798,932
1795-6	7,866,094	6,474,247	414,750	6,993,151	872,943	——	7,135,882
1796-7	8,016,171	7,081,191	426,847	7,609,228	406,943	——	9,142,733
1797-8	8,059,880	7,411,401	603,926	8,178,626	——	118,746	10,886,588
1798-9	8,652,033	8,417,813	721,550	9,260,031	——	607,998	12,584,366
1799-0	9,736,672	8,998,154	957,236	10,126,753	——	390,081	13,990,136
1800-1	10,485,059	10,405,501	1,062,684	11,624,510	——	1,139,451	16,610,443
1801-2	12,163,589	11,023,452	1,386,593	12,651,265	——	487,676	18,403,880
1802-3	13,464,537	10,965,427	1,361,453	12,523,728	940,809	——	19,572,253
1803-4	13,371,385	13,001,083	1,394,322	14,699,461	——	1,428,076	22,121,482
1804-5	14,949,395	14,548,433	1,566,750	16,487,346	——	1,537,951	25,626,631
1805-6	15,403,409	15,561,328	1,860,090	17,672,017	——	2,268,608	28,502,039
1806-7	14,535,739	15,383,908	2,224,956	17,688,061	——	3,152,322	30,244,341
1807-8	15,669,905	13,624,622	2,225,668	15,979,027	——	309,122	32,007,819
1808-9	15,525,055	13,151,224	2,241,665	15,551,097	——	26,042	30,876,788

The above amount of debt was, by adjustments which took place in the Committee of the House of Commons, reduced on the 30th of April, 1809, to £28,897,742, being an increase of the Indian debt from the year 1792, of upwards of £20,000,000 sterling.

It appears, from the foregoing statement, that, notwithstanding the Company's revenues have from different acquisitions and annexations, been greatly enhanced, the expenditure has kept pace with the increase, and has even outrun it, so that in 1793-4, when the revenues were only £8,276,770, there was a surplus of £1,642,819; in 1806-7, when the revenue was £14,535,739, there was a deficiency of £3,152,322: but what is the most obvious and striking in this statement, is the increase not of the charges only, but also of the debt, as the revenues increased, and not merely in proportion to the increase in the revenues; for whilst, from the year 1793-4 to the year 1805-6, the amount of the revenues has not been quite doubled, that of the charges has been increased as five to two, and that of the debt nearly quadrupled, besides what has been transferred in the course of that period to England, in consequence of the Court of Directors having authorized the Government of India to draw bills towards the liquidation of the debt, to an amount not exceeding £500,000 per annum. The sums subscribed in India on that account, from 1792-3 to 1802-3, when the measure was suspended, was £4,554,471. The greatest increase under all these heads has been since the year 1798-9. The first foundation of the debt was laid by the Mahratta war of 1778. The accumulation of that debt, and of charges, may in some degree be accounted for by the expences of the various expeditions undertaken against the French, Dutch, and Spanish possessions in India, and to Egypt, at the desire of His Majesty, and on which the Company expended very large sums, borrowed at high Indian interest, to the prejudice of their general credit and commercial concerns.

COMPANY'S ASSETS IN ALL PARTS OF INDIA.

An account of the assets belonging to the East India Company at their settlements of Bengal, Madras, Bombay and Bencoolen, on the 30th of April in each year, from 1792 to 1809 inclusive.

Years.	Cash and Bills.	Stores.	Debts, including advances for Investments.	Export Goods	Import Goods.	Salt, Opium, Rum, Grain, and Cattle.	Total.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1792	1,804,292	986,852	3,790,156	554,258	265,039	153,237	7,553,834
1793	1,811,552	1,019,271	4,535,933	463,138	158,537	78,085	8,067,116
1794	1,936,604	1,090,945	4,365,258	716,443	341,628	62,648	8,513,526
1795	2,058,728	1,178,805	4,539,146	552,387	197,871	69,002	8,595,939
1796	1,763,345	1,147,438	4,681,608	724,022	188,740	163,200	8,668,353
1797	1,451,118	1,318,662	5,229,697	1,413,682	320,922	458,215	10,192,296
1798	1,284,715	1,598,339	5,367,495	713,611	228,417	401,381	9,593,958
1799	1,325,538	1,435,558	5,193,302	921,795	370,828	440,874	9,687,895
1800	2,049,099	1,691,620	5,456,232	690,031	280,229	580,479	10,747,690
1801	2,141,359	1,692,165	5,302,332	782,005	341,484	628,712	10,888,057
1802	2,650,319	1,639,218	5,698,569	471,586	408,149	663,158	11,620,999
1803	3,053,994	1,735,456	5,715,458	454,909	573,874	638,979	12,172,670
1804	3,040,302	1,996,674	6,151,593	994,512	1,122,268	664,768	13,970,117
1805	3,264,845	1,982,853	7,882,729	816,159	1,068,846	765,837	15,781,269
1806	4,369,377	1,717,924	7,819,864	627,163	935,733	935,127	16,405,188
1807	4,443,227	1,955,286	8,070,322	1,038,827	797,577	698,311	17,003,550
1808	6,688,773	2,177,830	6,840,540	676,880	820,939	1,007,070	18,212,032
1809	7,419,786	1,938,371	7,950,640	710,325	1,004,291	1,104,285	20,127,707

The above statement of assets was adjusted by the Committee of the House of Commons, to whom the Company's affairs have been submitted, by the absolute exclusion of bad debts, revenue balances, debts from the Nabob of Arcot and Rajah of Tanjore, a very material part of them being debts in arrears of subsidy, under the engagements with those Princes, before the conclusion of the treaties by which the Company now hold the possession of their respective countries. The part of the increase occasioned by the imports from Europe in goods and stores not being procured by Indian funds, is also excluded. The expence of the expedition to Egypt had been kept on the Bengal accounts as an asset, from being considered as a claim upon the public; this is likewise excluded. The amount of these deductions is as follows:

Expedition to Egypt, from the Bengal accounts	£1,733,328
Sundry bad debts and revenue balances, in ditto	606,727
Due from the Nabob of Arcot in the Madras accounts	1,622,475
Due from the Rajah of Tanjore ditto	803,220
Bad debts in the Madras accounts	5,558
Revenue balances	1,210,145
Bad debts and revenue balances in the Bombay accounts	102,143
Sundry bad debts in the Fort Marlborough account	65,697
Assets, &c. in goods from Europe	1,181,718
Assets in stores; amount remaining £1,938,371, of which two-thirds are estimated to have been received from Europe	1,292,247
Total adjustments, April, 1809	£8,623,258
Deduct amount of treasure consigned from Bengal to Madras, excluded from the quick stock of the former, and not included in that of the latter	717,561
Total	£7,905,697

which deducted from the original statement of assets, leaves the net amount £12,222,010, of which £5,615,494 was in cash, actually in the treasuries of the Presidencies in India.

From the foregoing statements it appears that the debts owing by the East India Company at their different Presidencies, as adjusted to the 30th of April, 1809, were £28,897,742

The amount of their assets, as per above adjusted account 12,222,010

The Company's debts in India exceed their quick stock, or assets £16,675,732

The Company are besides possessed of property to a considerable amount at their different Presidencies and settlements in India, which, from not being considered as active, or immediately available, is not inserted in what is termed their quick stock accounts. This stock consists of plate, household furniture, guns on the ramparts, arms, and some descriptions of military stores: these, with the doubtful debts of the Company, are carried into an account termed dead stock. The net increase on the whole of the dead stock in India, in so far as it consisted of plate, household furniture, guns, stores, &c. amounts to £929,291, of which sum it is estimated to have been supplied from Europe £729,291, and by Indian funds £200,000. This dead stock is valued at £400,000 in the Company's home accounts, and included buildings and fortifications, plate, household furniture, plantations, farms, sloops, stores, and other articles of dead stock, according to Lord Godolphin's award in the year 1702: whereas the whole of the sums of money expended in buildings and fortifications, by the latest advices from the Company's several settlements, for the acquisition and maintenance of their possessions, and the nearest estimated value of other articles of dead stock, is as follows, *viz.*

	Buildings and Fortifications.	Plate, Furniture, &c.	Total.
Bengal	£5,494,354	1,496,114	6,990,468
Fort St. George and subordinates	1,840,682	447,798	2,288,480
Bombay and ditto	1,125,093	352,691	1,477,784
Fort Marlborough and ditto	243,640	74,544	318,184
St. Helena	43,685	93,912	137,597
Fort Cornwallis	63,478	11,624	75,102
	£8,810,932	2,476,683	11,287,615

The nature and description of the preceding accounts of revenues and disbursements at each of the Presidencies, and of India in general, are such as to afford in each year a view of the amount of the revenues derived from the possessions in India, and the charges incurred in the government and defence of them, with the interest payable upon the debts; they likewise shew the amount of those debts, and of the effective property of the East India Company, commonly termed the quick stock. On the renewal of the Charter in 1793, the Act prescribed that the East India Company should annually lay before Parliament distinct accounts of the revenues and disbursements in India, with the amount of the sales of goods and stores received from Europe; together with the state of their debts, assets, &c. The columns of the several statements are in conformity with the heads or items of the accounts laid before Parliament; and the sums are taken from those accounts, and converted into sterling money at the rates of exchange in usual practice, *viz.* 2s. the current rupee, 8s. the pagoda, and 2s. 3d. the Bombay rupee. By this principle or mode of statement, an opportunity is afforded of discovering the financial situation of each of the Presidencies, as to its proper income and expenditure during a period of seventeen years, 1792-3 to 1808-9 inclusive.

BENGAL COMPANY'S ARMY.

The following is an account of the number of persons in the Company's military employ on this establishment, as it stood on the 30th of April, 1807; since which period no material alteration has taken place in the number of regiments, except in those of His Majesty.

Europeans.

35 Colonels.
77 Lieutenant-Colonels.
72 Majors.
280 Captains.
44 Captain-Lieutenants.
674 Lieutenants.
256 Cornets, Ensigns, and Cadets.
13 Quarter-masters.
7 Chaplains.
52 Surgeons.
84 Assistant Surgeons.
9 Riding-masters.
9 Deputy Commissaries of Ordnance.
30 Conductors of Ordnance.
7 Civil servants in military employ.
29 Assistants in military offices.
732 Serjeants.
178 Drummers and Fifers.
6023 Rank and file.

Natives.

669 Subadars.
764 Jemautdars.
3259 Havildars.
1004 Drummers and Trumpeters.
56229 Rank and file.
8 Jemautdars Golandaaze.
49 Havildars ditto.
667 Rank and file ditto
40 Artillery Serangs.
69 Ditto Tindals.
2930 Ditto Lascars.
69 Native Doctors.
143 Ditto Clerks and servants in public offices.
14877 Artificers, Dooley-bearers, Syces, and other camp followers receiving pay.

Effective Strength in Rank and File according to the Returns.

Europeans	2 regiments of His Majesty's dragoons	923	
	5 ditto ..... Infantry	4,731	
			5,654
	3 battalions of the Company's artillery	1,120	
	1 half squadron of ditto horse artillery	50	
	1 regiment of European infantry	218	
	Supernumeraries	16	
			1,404
	Total of Europeans		7,058
Natives	8 regiments of cavalry	4,128	
	Horse artillery	24	
	Artillery Golandaaze	666	
	40 Companies of Artillery Lascars	2,731	
	27 Regiments of Infantry	46,230	
	Hill rangers	312	
	Escorts and detachments	648	
	3 Companies of Pioneers	234	
	Supernumeraries and Recruits	813	
	1 Ramghur battalion	810	
	Total of Natives		56,686
	Total of Europeans and Natives		63,744

TABLE OF PAY AND ALLOWANCES

To the Officers of His Majesty's Regiments serving under the Presidency of Bengal, and of the Bengal Army.

REGIMENTAL RANKS AND APPOINTMENTS.	His Majesty's Light Dragoons, and the Hon. Company's Native Cavalry.										The Honourable Company's Artillery.										His Majesty's Regiments of Foot, and Hon. Company's Engineers and European and Native Infantry.									
	IN GARRISON OR CANTONMENT.			IN THE FIELD.							IN GARRISON OR CANTONMENT.			IN THE FIELD.							IN GARRISON OR CANTONMENT.			IN THE FIELD.						
	Batta.	Tent Allowance.	Established Allowance.	Batta.	Tent Allowance.	Established Allowance.	Horse Allowance.	Gratuity.	Pay.		Batta.	Tent Allowance.	Established Allowance.	Batta.	Tent Allowance.	Established Allowance.	Horse Allowance.	Gratuity.	Pay.		Batta.	Tent Allowance.	Established Allowance.	Batta.	Tent Allowance.	Established Allowance.	Gratuity.	Pay.		
	Rs. per Day.	Rs. per Mo.	Rs. per Mo.	Rs. per Day.	Rs. per Mo.	Rs. per Mo.	Rs. per Mo.	Rs. per Mo.	Rs. per Mo.	Rs. per Day.	Rs. per Day.	Rs. per Mo.	Rs. per Mo.	Rs. per Day.	Rs. per Mo.	Rs. per Mo.	Rs. per Mo.	Rs. per Mo.	Rs. per Mo.	Rs. per Day.	Rs. per Day.	Rs. per Mo.	Rs. per Mo.	Rs. per Day.	Rs. per Mo.	Rs. per Mo.	Rs. per Mo.	Rs. per Day.	
Colonel, when not a General Officer	25	100	....	25	200	....	120	297	8 0	....	25	100	....	25	200	....	....	....	....	10	25	100	....	25	200	....	....	....	....	10 0 0
Lieutenant Colonel	10	75	....	20	150	....	120	278	4 0	....	10	75	....	20	150	....	....	....	....	8	10	75	....	20	150	....	....	....	....	8 0 0
Major	7½	60	....	15	120	....	120	232	13 4	....	7½	60	....	15	120	....	....	....	....	6	7½	60	....	15	120	....	....	....	....	6 0 0
Captain	5	37½	....	6	75	....	36	90	179	6 4	....	5	37½	....	6	75	....	36	140	....	3	37½	....	6	75	....	36	0 4	....	4 0 0
Captain Lieutenants	5	37½	....	6	75	....	36	90	109	8 0	....	5	37½	....	6	75	....	36	70	....	3	37½	....	6	75	....	36	0 0	....	2 8 0 0
——, holding another commission	3	37½	....	6	75	....	36	90	109	8 0	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	3	37½	....	6	75	....	36	0 0	....	2 8 0 0
Lieutenant	2	25	....	4	50	....	24	60	109	8 0	....	2	25	....	4	50	....	24	70	....	2	25	....	4	50	....	24	0 0	....	2 0 0
——, holding another commission	2	25	....	4	50	....	24	60	109	8 0	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	2	25	....	4	50	....	24	0 0	....	2 0 0
Cornet	1½	25	....	3	50	....	12	60	97	5 4	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Lieutenant Fireworker	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1½	25	....	3	50	....	12	60	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Ensign	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1½	25	....	3	50	....	12	0 0	....	1 10 0
——, holding another commission	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1½	25	....	3	50	....	12	0 0	....	1 10 0
STAFF.																														
Surgeon	3	37½	....	6	75	....	36	90	....	4 0	3	37½	....	6	75	....	36	....	4	3	37½	....	6	75	....	36	0 0	....	4 0 0
Veterinary Surgeon	2	25	....	4	50	....	24	60	Kg's. Pay	3 0	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Assistant Surgeon	1½	25	....	4	50	....	24	60	....	3 0	1½	25	....	4	50	....	24	....	3	1½	25	....	4	50	....	24	0 0	....	3 0 0
Riding-Master	0½	12½	....	1	25	....	50	62	0 0	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	[illegible]
Quarter-master of King's Troops	1	....	....	2	....	....	90	Kg's. Pay		3 0	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1	....	58	2	2	93	15	14	5	Kg's. Pay.
Adjutant of Art. and European Infantry	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	197	....	....	....	227	....	....	....
—— of King's Troops holding another	....	....	165	....	....	165	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	153	....	....	153	....	....	....	....
—— of Engineers, ——commission	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	157	....	....	157	....	....	....	....
—— of Native Corps	....	....	167	....	....	167	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	129	....	....	152	....	....	....	....
—— and Quarter-master of ditto	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	157	....	....	187	....	....	....	....
—— of Native Cavalry	....	....	117	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	117	....	....	137	....	....	....	....
Quarter-master of Artillery and Eur. Inf	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	137	....	....	....	137	....	....	137	....	....	....	....

CALCUTTA.

TABLE OF STAFF ALLOWANCES.

	Monthly Allowance.		
Adjutant General of His Majesty's Troops .. St. Rs.	2250	0	0
——— of the Company's forces	2250	0	0
———'s Deputy, in quarters	466	0	0
———, in the field	576	0	0
——— and Quarter-master at Ghazeepore	291	0	0
——— of the Calcutta Native militia....	122	0	0
——— of the body guard.....	167	0	0
——— of Prince of Wales's Island	102	0	0
——— of town guards, in Calcutta.....	120	0	0
Aide-de-Camp to the Governor-General	354	0	0
——— to the Commander in Chief.....	324	0	0
——— to a Major General on the staff	204	0	0
Allahabad, Commander of	500	0	0
Apothecary, in Fort William	800	0	0
———'s Assistant, at Fort William.....	400	0	0
Army clothing, Agent for.....	1000	0	0
———, Deputy Agent for	500	0	0
Artillery, Commandant of	1000	0	0
Auditor General.....	3483	7	9
———'s Deputy	533	5	4
———'s Assistant	300	0	0
Baggage-master, including regimental allowances, tent allowances excepted	455	0	0
Baggage Serjeant	20	0	0
Barrack-master of Fort William	300	0	0
——— at Dinapore	240	0	0
——— at Berhampore	240	0	0
Brigade Major of Artillery	294	0	0
——— of Stations.....	294	0	0
——— to the King's troops.....	394	0	0
——— attached to Majors General on His Majesty's staff	294	0	0
——— of cavalry	254	0	0
——— Quarter-master.....	217	0	0
Buxar, Commandant of	530	0	0
Cavalry, Commandant of	1000	0	0
Chaplains, attached to the army stations, within the Provinces of Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, each	750	12	0
———, attached to the army stations beyond the Provinces	900	14	5
Chunar, Commandant of	500	0	0
Commander in Chief	5103	9	9
Commissary General, (inclusive of his allowances as Quarter master General).....	3135	2	6
———'s Deputy	1200	0	0
———'s Assistant	1000	0	0
———'s Sub-Assistant	400	0	0
Compiler of the King's troops accounts	300	0	0
Engineer, chief	1000	0	0
———, in charge of the department	800	0	0
———, carrying on the works at Allahabad	1500	0	0
———'s Assistant at Allahabad	50	0	0
———'s Assistant at Prince of Wales's Island ..	240	0	0
———, at Chunar	240	0	0
———'s Assistant at ditto.....	50	0	0
———, field	240	0	0
———, Assistant in the field	118	0	0
———, employed to superintend Contracts, works of trust, or as executive officer	*Vide M. of C. 31st March*, 1790.		
Executive officer in Fort William	500	0	0
Fort Major of Fort William.....	1200	0	0
—— Adjutant of Fort William	327	0	0
———, and Barrack-master at Allahabad ..	309	0	0
———, at Monghеer ..... *(per day)*	4	0	0
———, at Buxar	137	0	0
———, and Barrack-master, at Chunar	311	0	0
Gun-carriages and powder-barrels, Agent for the manufacture of	1254	1	0
—— Powder at Ishapore, Agent for the manufact. of	1567	9	1
———, Assistant to the Agent for the manufacture of.....	522	8	4

	Monthly Allowance.		
Hospital Board, first member of ..... St. Rs.	2232	12	1
Hospital Board, second member of	2586	2	3
———, third member of.....	2298	13	7
Interpreter, Persian, to the Commander in Chief..	666	10	8
Judge Advocate General	713	8	0
Judge Advocate General's Deputy at Cawnpore, and Futty Ghur	300	0	0
———, at Dinapore and Chunar	200	0	0
———, temporarily during the sitting of a general Court Martial, .. *(per day)*	7	0	0
Major-General on the Staff	4000	0	0
Musters, Commissary of, to the King's troops.....	450	0	0
Ordnance, Commissary of.....	250	0	0
———, Deputy Commissary of	122	0	0
Paymaster General	3918	14	9
———, Deputy, and Accountant, and Paymaster of Extraordinaries	1150	0	0
———, of Artillery and Garrisons, of the Presidency, of Ordnance, and of Up-Country Garrisons.....	1672	1	2
———'s Deputy, of Stations	522	8	4
———, to the King's troops.....	600	0	0
———, at Prince of Wales's Island.....	256	0	0
Provost Serjeant.....	20	0	0
Quarter-master General to the King's troops	2250	0	0
——— to the Company's troops ..	2250	0	0
———'s Deputy, in the Field	576	0	0
———, at the Presidency	466	0	0
Regulating Officer, in each district, to the invalid Jaghеerdar Establishment	876	0	0
Secretary, Military, to the Governor General.....	1000	0	0
——— to the Medical Board.....	870	0	0
——— to the Commander in Chief.....	2404	1	5
——— to the Military Board	2717	0	0
———, first Assistant to	522	8	4
———, and Persian Interpreter to the Commanding Officer in Oude, and the ceded Districts.....	583	5	4
——— to the Board of Superintendence of the Honourable Company's Stud.....	261	4	0
Stores, Commissary of, at Fort William.....	736	0	0
———, first Assistant to the.....	350	0	0
—— Keeper, Garrison of Fort William	1045	0	9
Superintendent of Military Buildings	1000	0	0
Superintendent of the Hon. Company's Stud.....	1045	0	9
———, Assistant to	209	0	2
Surgeon, superintending at Mustra	1600	0	0
——— Cawnpore	1600	0	0
——— Chunar	1266	10	6
——— Dinapore	1266	10	6
——— Berhampore	1266	10	6
——— to the Garrison of Fort William	403	0	0
———'s Assistant ..... *Pay, full Batta, and Gratuity.*			
———, to the Presidency Hospital	600	0	0
———, to the Governor General, including every allowance.....	1200	0	0
——— of the Establishment of the Stud at Poona, *for Medicines*	150	0	0
——— to the Orphan School	313	8	8
——— to the Commander in Chief .... *The Pay and Gratuity of his Rank, and full Batta and House Rent of Captain.*			
——— to the Insane Hospital, at Monghеer	100	0	0
Surveyor General	300	0	0
———, Land.....	618	0	0
———, Assistant to	100	0	0
———, employed on Rivers.....	838	0	0
———, Assistant to	293	0	0
Town Adjutant..... *(per day)*	4	0	0
Town Major, see "*Fort Major.*"			

COMPANY'S ARMY IN ALL PARTS OF INDIA.

The following is an abstract view of the effective strength in rank and file of the armies in India, according to the returns as applicable to the year 1808-9. This abstract will be useful in affording a general idea of the nature and numbers of the different corps of which the India army is composed; and particularly as no alteration as to the number of regiments is known to have taken place since that period, except as to those of His Majesty.

Europeans	4 regiments of His Majesty's dragoons	2,636	
	20 regiments of His Majesty's infantry	17,712	
	His Majesty's troops		20,348
	6 battalions of artillery	2,867	
	2 half squadrons of horse artillery	146	
	3 regiments of infantry	977	
	Supernumeraries	36	
	Company's European troops		4,026
	Total of European troops		24,374
Natives	16 regiments, and 1 troop of native cavalry	7,781	
	1 half squadron of horse artillery	95	
	Artillery Golandaaze	828	
	96 companies of artillery Lascars	5,559	
	59 regiments of infantry	101,577	
	Hill rangers	312	
	Escorts and detachments	648	
	2 battalions and 4 companies of pioneers	1,785	
	1 marine battalion	750	
	Supernumeraries and recruits	8,932	
	1 Ramghur battalion	810	
	Total of Natives		129,077
	Total of Europeans and Natives		153,451

The effective strength of the Indian army in 1794, was 13,500 Europeans, and 56,435 natives, forming a total of 69,935; since which period there has been an increase of 10,874 Europeans and 72,642 natives, forming in the whole an increase of 83,516.

In 1801 the war with the European powers having ended, and peace existing with the native powers of India, expectations were entertained that the expenditure would be reduced to a peace establishment; but war breaking out with the Mahrattas in 1803-4, its effects are shewn in the three following years, although the war may be considered to have ended in December, 1805, when a treaty was concluded with Holkar. The effect of the restoration of peace is observable in the reduction of the charges of 1807-8 and 1808-9: the amount in each of those years may be considered as still very high, compared with the year 1802-3; but the cause of it is to be found, for the most part, in the permanent additions made to the military establishments since that period, both of His Majesty's troops and the Company's: of the former seven regiments of foot, and of the latter twelve regiments of native infantry, and three of cavalry, the aggregate expence of which may be estimated at one million sterling.

The alteration which took place in the formation and system of the Company's army in 1796, is detailed at length at Bombay. So material a change could not be effected but with considerable expence. This, with the circumstance of the whole period having been one continual scene of war, or preparation for it,

either European or Indian, in some instances, as the necessary means of defence, led to the raising of new regiments; and in others levies were required to supply the place of troops employed on expeditions against the enemy's possessions. The combined effect of the whole produced an addition of the King's regiments, and an increase in the establishment of the Company's army to the extent already stated. Ceylon, Malacca, and the eastward islands were conquered; an expedition was prepared upon a large scale to proceed against Manilla, but was ultimately abandoned; the expedition to Egypt, and the capture of the French and Dutch settlements upon the Peninsula, occasioned large expences; but the most material addition upon the Continent of India, was occasioned by the concert which existed between the French, Zemaun Shah, and Tippoo Sultaun, from whence arose the apprehension of invasion by Zemaun Shah on the N.W. frontier of Bengal, and the war with Tippoo, which ended in 1799. The necessary consequence of these circumstances was an increase of the armies of Bengal and Madras, and an enhancement of the military charges of all the Presidencies, by the addition of field-allowances and expences.

The following is an account of the sums which have been paid by the Government to the East India Company, in part of their claims, for advances and supplies made at the several Presidencies in India for the expeditions fitted out by them against the enemy's possessions in India, the eastern islands, &c. including interest.

Intended expedition against the Mauritius, in 1794	£225,701
Expences incurred at the capture of the Cape of Good Hope	63,993
Intended expedition against Manilla	528,437
Vessels, stores, &c. supplied His Majesty's ships in India	267,036
Expences incurred on account of Danish captures in 1801-2	36,569
Expedition to Egypt	2,768,357
Charges incurred by the capture of Ceylon, &c. admitted in full	1,466,074
Ceylon charges, only half of which was allowed	1,205,656
Capture of the Eastern Islands, half of the expences allowed	1,321,859
Expences incurred in sending men and supplies to Trinidad	28,690
Expences in India of prisoners taken at sea, estimated at	300,000
	£8,212,372

The Company consider they have still claims upon the Government on the account of expeditions, &c. to a very considerable amount, exclusive of the extra expences incurred in the military department by the augmentation of the King's troops sent to India, which the change in the political situation of India by the late war there, and the possibility of new commotions have required, and which the contingency even of a land invasion of India may render necessary upon a large scale. The Company have incurred a very heavy charge on account of these troops, and they consider they have an equitable claim on Government, not only for the new and excessive expence to which they have been subjected, but for the whole number of the King's troops exceeding the parliamentary limit, which have been sent out since the commencement of the foreign expeditions from India, which began in 1797; and all the subsequent military operations in which those troops assisted, have either immediately served national purposes against the French, as in the war of Mysore, or have been carried on under the controul of His Majesty's Government. The confidence of the Company in the liberality of Government, and their promptitude to embark in the public service, without exact stipulations for the repayment of their disbursements, doubtless entitle them to the settlement of their claim upon Government for the various expenditures made on account of the public in the East Indies. Under this head, the Company have made out an account, shewing

the King's troops which have been in India in each year since 1798 to 1807, and the extra expence incurred beyond the number stipulated by Act of Parliament which is 10,727, and which was the number in India in 1798, the expences of which were £485,111. In 1807 there were 17,295 King's troops in India; and taking the expence of 1797 as the standard of calculation, they consider they have a claim upon Government of £2,191,497.

The following is a statement of the expences of the military establishments in India; the sums paid in England as pay to military officers on furlough, by virtue of the regulations of 1796; and sundry expences attached to the military establishments both at home and in India, in the years 1793-4 to 1809-10 inclusive.

Years.	PAID IN INDIA.	PAID IN ENGLAND.		Total.
	Military Expences.	Pay to Military Officers on Furlough & Retirement.	Sundries.	
	£	£	£	£
1793–4	3,361,837	——	171,392	3,533,229
1794–5	3,409,598	——	163,399	3,572,997
1795–6	3,622,546	——	199,128	3,821,674
1796–7	4,107,057	——	375,097	4,482,154
1797–8	4,506,454	25,225	178,559	4,710,238
1798–9	5,473,587	37,125	263,611	5,774,323
1799–0	5,526,024	35,855	237,962	5,799,841
1800–1	6,512,423	46,622	261,013	6,822,058
1801–2	6,996,672	49,216	433,514	7,479,402
1802–3	6,061,169	60,163	333,044	6,454,376
1803–4	7,777,793	96,667	338,557	8,213,017
1804–5	8,459,263	112,234	373,370	8,944,867
1805–6	9,032,598	128,597	447,198	9,608,391
1806–7	8,772,422	141,319	350,764	9,264,505
1807–8	7,470,167	158,101	347,696	7,975,964
1808–9	7,380,427	166,048	384,718	7,931,193
1809–10	7,838,367	171,918	393,913	8,404,298

Under the head of sundries paid in England, are included passage of military homewards; sundries for the use of the military on the voyage to India; freight and demurrage of ships employed in carrying military or stores from port to port in India, or as cartels, depôt at the Isle of Wight, and recruiting; cadets and military seminary; and various other items connected with the Company's military establishments, amounting in the whole to £6,482,125.

The following extract from the correspondence which took place between the Court of Directors and the Board of Controul, on the subject of the transferring the Indian army from the Company to the King, will shew the nature and present constitution of it.

"The other important proposition which is next to be considered, is the transfer of the Indian army to the King. The reasons assigned for this proposition are, that an end may be put to the jealousies and divisions which have too much prevailed between the officers of His Majesty's army and those employed by the Company, and that the responsibility in the country of providing for the military defence of India, may be ascertained and strengthened.

"The Indian army is the main instrument by which the Company have acquired and retained the territorial possessions they have added to the British empire. The people of those countries submitted more easily to an authority exercised by means of a body formed from amongst themselves. We fought battles, and governed provinces, as the native powers did; and our new subjects, undisgusted with the sight of a foreign conquering army, supposed the government to continue substantially the same, and the principal

change to be in the individuals who exercised it. The constitution and character which this Indian army has acquired, have been the subject of just admiration. These have been owing essentially to the happy mixture of bravery and generosity, of firmness and kindness, exercised towards the Sepoys by their European officers. The superior lights and energy of the European character have directed the powers, and conciliated the prejudices of the native troops; but it was because the officers knew the people and their prejudices well. These officers had been trained up among them from an early age; the nature, the usages, and the language of the natives, were become familiar to them; and the natives, remarkably the creatures of habit, in return, from being accustomed, became attached to them. Without such knowledge, however, on the part of the officers, they might every day have revolted the minds of so peculiar a race, and have alienated them from our service and Government.

"An Indian military education from an early age is essential to the formation of a good Sepoy officer, and gradual rise in the service by seniority is no less indispensable. In this way, the Indian army has been constituted and rendered eminently efficient; and all measures tending to change or weaken the constituent parts of this fabric, are to be deprecated. When, excepting a few regiments of European artillery and infantry, the whole military force of British India was composed of Sepoy corps, the officers of that army, of course, possessed entire the emoluments and advantages which the service afforded. The introduction of European troops from His Majesty's army into India altered this state of things. Young officers of no Indian experience, who had obtained their commissions by purchase, took rank of men of long and tried service; the King's officers were thought to come in, also, for too large a share of employments and advantages. To redress the complaints which the Company's officers made of supercessions and partialities, and to give them a better share of the benefits of the service, was the leading object of Lord Cornwallis's Military Plan of 1794, and with him a principal motive for proposing to transfer the Indian army to the King, no other practicable means having then occurred to him. But the object was in substance attained by the Military Regulations of 1796, passed in concert with His Majesty's Government, without that transfer, of which his Lordship did not revive the idea on his last return to India, those regulations having given increased rank and retiring pay to the officers of the Company's army. The causes of complaint, however, did not entirely cease. To avoid the collision of authorities, the Company had adopted the usage of appointing the Commander-in-Chief of the King's troops, also their Commander-in-Chief; and one consequence of this has been, that the Company's officers, resident from early youth in India, possessing little influence in England, unknown to officers of high rank in His Majesty's service, have thought themselves treated with less favour and distinction than younger officers of that service recently arrived, but better patronized. There have been instances of this sort, which the Court, with the sanction of your Board, have interposed to repress; but as long as the British force in India is made up of two armies, so differently constituted, with so large a portion of King's officers, the whole commanded by Generals of His Majesty's service, there will, probably, be real or apprehended ground for the like complaints. They do not arise because one army has the honour to belong to His Majesty, and the other serves the Company, but because the constitution of the two armies is radically different, and must continue so, whether the armies are under one head or two. The Indian army cannot be maintained without officers attached to it from an early age, and rising by seniority. Frequent changes of King's regiments serving in India, and the consequent frequent arrival of young men, promoted in them by purchase, cannot be avoided: the former class will be comparatively unknown to the King's commanders; the latter will have among them the connections of those commanders, or of men of influence in England. It is not difficult to see, therefore, to which side the exercise of military patronage will lean; and to prevent causes of complaint, and to keep the balance even, must be an important object in the Government of India. It does not seem the way to effect this, to put the Indian army wholly in the power of the Commander-in-Chief. It is of the

partiality of that station of which the Company's officers have sometimes complained; and the Court see no reason whatever to suppose that their jealousy and dissatisfaction would be removed by putting them entirely under its controul; and, indeed, by placing two armies, of such different races, and so differently constituted, under the same master, it would seem difficult to avoid attaching the idea of permanent inferiority to that which was Indian. Nor is it a thing to be taken for granted, that the Sepoys, so much, as already observed, under the influence of habit, would chuse to be transferred from that service to which they have been always accustomed, to one of which they have little experience, and that experience not always of a conciliatory kind. To place the officers of the Indian army wholly under that authority of which they have hitherto complained, does not certainly appear to be the way to render them easy. It might, on the contrary, lead to serious discontent; and though the Court would be far from countenancing that spirit among their officers, or yielding to any irregular exertion of it, yet it must be said, on the other hand, that those officers are a body of men who have deserved too well of the Company and their country, to have real causes of discontent; and that it would be impolitic to adopt any system likely to generate such causes, either among them or the men they command.

"With regard to the other reason assigned for the proposed change, the Court beg leave to observe, in the first place, that they do not perceive the necessary connection between the inconvenience which is alleged, and the remedy suggested for it; since, if it were true that the question of responsibility in England, respecting the appointment of Commander-in-Chief, lay under an obscurity and uncertainty detrimental to the public service, it does not appear to follow that the Indian army ought to be transferred to the King, to remedy this defect. But, in the humble apprehension of the Court, no obscurity hangs over that question. The appointment of Commanders-in-Chief of the King's forces there rests with His Majesty, and the officer chosen by him will, by virtue of his commission, generally command the Company's army on service. The appointment of Commanders-in-Chief for the Company's army is placed by law, in the first instance, in the Court of Directors, but with a power vested in His Majesty to annul such appointments. This necessarily points to an agreement between His Majesty's Government and the Court of Directors, in respect to those appointments, and the Court are not aware that they have on any occasion used the share of power left to them by this arrangement, for the exercise of which they feel that they are responsible, to the prejudice of the public service. They must, at the same time, humbly express their opinion that the law as it now stands, is wisely conceived, since it does not halve the responsibility, but double it, making both His Majesty's Government and the Court of Directors fully answerable for the appointment of the Company's Commanders-in-Chief; and if it should still be said that, in point of fact, the selection of a Commander-in-Chief for His Majesty's forces may be rendered difficult, by reluctance on the part of the Court to accept of the same officer for the command of the Company's army, it may be justly replied, that they make a sacrifice to the public interest in agreeing that the Commanders-in-Chief of His Majesty's shall also be the Company's; and when he is not only to command their army, but expects to be made a Member of their civil and political Government, it cannot be deemed unreasonable that they should possess the right of satisfying themselves as to his competency for filling those high offices; neither is it, as they think, to be shewn from theoretical reasoning, or by an appeal to facts, that the service will suffer, or has suffered, by their assertion of this right.

"But the strongest objections of the Court to the proposed transfer arise from political considerations. They conceive the continuance of the Indian army in the hands of the Company to be essential to the administration of the civil, financial, and political affairs of British India, according to the present system. The Company's Government has hitherto been respected both by its own subjects and foreign powers, because it possessed a great military force. Organizing this force, enlarging or reducing it at pleasure, appointing its officers, rewarding merit, punishing the unworthy, providing for the comfortable retirement of the veteran soldier and officer, and, in short, exercising all the functions of a governing power over a

very numerous body of men of high military spirit, it has possessed all the respectability and the benefit of their attachment and fidelity. Looking upon the members of the civil Government and the body of civil servants as belonging to the same master with themselves, and as the first order in the state, they have paid a willing obedience to their authority, and have thereby upheld their internal administration and their consequence abroad. The introduction of certain King's regiments has been understood, as it was intended, to be merely in support of the public interest under the existing system; but if the Company were to be divested of the whole of their military force and power—if they were to be no longer masters of a single regiment, no longer capable of entertaining any soldiers, nor of giving one subaltern's commission—if the immense body of men, who have so long looked up to them, were to be transferred from them, the people must consider their power as fallen, and drawing rapidly to a close. Continuing still to their Governments a general controul over the employment of the army, and to their civil servants the internal administration of their affairs, would give the people no assurance to the contrary. Those servants, in the discharge of their different functions of judges, magistrates, collectors, could not expect the same respect and support, either from public opinion, or the attachment of the native troops, as when all looked to the same head for protection, patronage, and reward. Indeed, to make so wide a separation of the military from the civil power—to take away the organization, the interior regulation, and with these, the patronage of the army, from the local Government—to place all those powers in the hands of the Commander-in-Chief, subject only, in the exercise of them, to an authority at the distance of half the globe, would throw the means and the temptation of a dangerous ascendency into the scale of the military department, which, constituted by His Majesty, might easily be led to slight the civil servants of a meaner master, and their chance of distant redress. Among the natives of India it has been usual to consider the military power, and those possessing it, as pre-eminent; and they see, in some examples of the present day, that power, under the idea of assisting the civil and political administration, actually controuling it. The Company's Government, in short, lowered and overshadowed in this way, would not, in the opinion of the Court, continue to possess the authority necessary for the proper administration of the affairs of that great empire; and it might then be conceived that a further change only could supply what was defective."

The following are extracts from the laws relative to mutiny, desertion, &c. in the Company's service.—Officers or soldiers in the Company's service, and receiving their pay at their settlements in India or at St. Helena, who shall mutiny, desert, or inlist in another regiment, be found sleeping on duty, desert their post, correspond with the enemy, or strike their superior officer, or disobey him, to suffer death, or such other punishment as a court martial shall inflict. 27 Geo. II. cap. 9, sect. 1.

In addition to mutiny, desertion, and other crimes stated in Section 1, courts martial may inflict corporal punishment for immoralities, misbehaviour, or neglect of duty. No officer or soldier liable to be tried a second time by the same or another court martial for the same offence; and no sentence, after being signed by the President of the court martial, liable to be revised more than once. Sect. 4 to 7.

No general court martial in any of the Company's settlements in India to consist of less than nine commissioned officers. The President not to be the Commander-in-Chief, nor the Governor of the garrison where the offence shall be tried, neither to be under the degree of a Captain. In the island of St. Helena, the number not to be less than five commissioned officers, with the same exceptions respecting the President, who is not to be under the degree of a Lieutenant. Such courts martial to have authority to administer oaths, and to proceed as His Majesty may, from time to time, order and direct. Sentence of death not to be passed unless two-thirds of the officers present concur therein. Trials and proceedings only to take place between the hours of eight in the morning and three in the afternoon, except where immediate example is necessary. Sect. 5.—Judge Advocate to transmit original proceedings of courts martial to the Commander-in-Chief of His Majesty's forces, if the court be appointed by him, or to the Governors, &c. in India or St. Helena, if the court be appointed by them. Sect. 6.

CIVIL SERVICE.

The civil servants of the Company are denominated writers, factors, junior merchants, and senior merchants. The nature, magnitude, and importance of the service are thus stated by the Marquis Wellesley, in his Minute in Council at Fort William, dated August 18, 1800.

"To dispense justice to millions of people of various languages, manners, usages, and religions—to administer a vast and complicated system of revenue throughout districts equal in extent to some of the most considerable kingdoms in Europe—to maintain civil order in one of the most populous and litigious regions in the world—these are the duties of the larger proportion of the civil servants of the Company. The senior merchants, composing the five courts of circuit and appeal under the Presidency of Bengal, exercise in each of those courts a jurisdiction of greater local extent, applicable to a larger population, and occupied in the determination of causes infinitely more intricate and numerous than that of any of the regularly constituted courts of justice in any part of Europe. The senior or junior merchants employed in the several magistracies and zillah courts, the writers or factors filling the stations of registrars and assistants to the several courts and magistrates, exercise, in different degrees, functions of a nature either purely judicial, or intimately connected with the administration of the police, and with the maintenance of the peace and good order of their respective districts. The pleadings in the several courts, and all important judicial transactions, are conducted in the native languages. The law which the Company's judges are bound to administer throughout the country, is not the law of England, but that law to which the natives had long been accustomed under their former Sovereigns, tempered and mitigated by the voluminous regulations of the Governors-General in Council, as well as by the general spirit of the British Constitution. These observations are sufficient to prove that no more arduous or complicated duties of magistracy exist in the world; no qualifications more various or comprehensive, can be imagined than those which are required from every British subject who enters the seat of judgment within the limits of the Company's empire in India.

"To the administration of the revenue many of the preceding observations will apply with equal force. The merchants, factors, and writers, employed in this department, also are bound by law to abjure the mercantile denomination appropriated to their respective classes in the Company's service. In addition to the ordinary judicial and executive functions of the judges, magistrates, and collectors, the judges and magistrates occasionally act in the capacity of Governors of their respective districts, employing the military, and exercising other extensive powers. The judges, magistrates, and collectors are also respectively required by law to propose, from time to time, to the Governors-General in Council such amendments of the existing laws, or such new laws as may appear to them to be necessary to the welfare and good government of their respective districts. In this view the civil servants employed in the departments of judicature and revenue, constitute a species of subordinate legislative council to the Governor-General in Council, and also a channel of communication, by which the Government ought to be enabled, at all times, to ascertain the wants and wishes of the people. The remarks applied to these two main branches of the civil service, namely, those of judicature and revenue, are at least equally forcible in their application to those branches which may be described under the general terms of the political and financial department, comprehending the offices of Chief Secretary, the various stations in the Secretary's office, in the Treasury, and in the office of Accountant-General, together with all the public officers employed in conducting the current business at the seat of government. To these must be added the diplomatic branch, including the several residencies at the courts of our dependant and tributary Princes, or of other native powers of India.

"The civil servants of the East India Company are not only the agents of a commercial concern, but

the ministers and officers of a powerful Sovereign. They are required to discharge the functions of magistrates, judges, ambassadors, and governors of provinces, in all the complicated and extensive relations of those sacred trusts and exalted stations, and under peculiar circumstances, which greatly enhance the solemnity of every public obligation, and aggravate the difficulty of every public charge. Their duties are those of statesmen in every other part of the world, with no other characteristic differences than the obstacles opposed by an unfavourable climate, a foreign language, the peculiar usages and laws of India, and the manners of the inhabitants."

The following is a comparative abstract of the civil establishments at the three Presidencies in India in 1808. It is impossible to state the number of Europeans and Natives employed at Madras, as the accounts received from that Presidency do not afford the means of so doing.

	BENGAL.				MADRAS.	BOMBAY.			
	Europeans.					Europeans.			
DEPARTMENT.	Convenanted.	Uncovenanted.	Natives.	Annual Expence.	Annual Expence.	Convenanted.	Uncovenanted.	Natives.	Annual Expence.
	No.	No.	No.	£	£	No.	No.	No.	£
General	83	164	2,226	681,089	295,027	34	26	336	70,949
Judicial	116	132	20,124	603,619	227,972	6	11	580	31,238
Revenue	41	43	3,170	562,158	123,253	6	6	916	21,255
Commercial	72	90	11,656	330,786	60,725	7	5	217	7,800
Marine	1	53	290	50,954	10,892	—	16	101	69,264
Total	313	482	37,466	2,228,606	720,869	53	64	2,150	200,506
Ceded Provinces	37	31	7,502	431,813	582,505	15	32	2,303	68,878
Conquered Provinces	26	23	7,747	556,196					
Total	376	536	52,715	3,216,615	1,303,374	68	96	4,453	269,384

REGULATIONS RELATIVE TO THE CIVIL SERVICE.

By an Act passed the 26th Geo. III. cap. 16, the salaries, perquisites, and emoluments of the Company's servants were limited to the holding one or more offices, places, or employments in the civil service, according to the period of their actual residence in India, in the Company's service. The following is a table of the allowances, with the rates of exchange at which they are payable at Bengal.

Actual Residence in India.	£ sterling per Annum.	Exchange.	Cur. Rupees per Annum.	Sicca Rupees. per Annum.	Sicca Rupees. per Month.
From 1 to 3 years	500	1s. 9d. $\frac{115}{119}$	5,665	4,883 9 11	406 15 6
3 to 6 ditto	1,500	Rupee	16,995	14,650 13 9	1,220 14 6
6 to 9 ditto	3,000	Ditto	33,990	29,301 11 6	1,441 13 0
9 to 12 ditto	4,000	Ditto	45,320	39,068 15 4	3,255 12 0

The reduced subsistence to civil servants out of employ is to be calculated at the same rate of exchange at which the Governor-General in Council receives his salary. The different ranks of civil servants are therefore to be paid as follow:

RANK.	£ sterling per Annum.	Exchange.	Cur. Rupees per Annum.	Sicca Rupees. per Annum.	Sicca Rupees. per Month.
Senior Merchants	400	As above	4,532	3,906 14 0	325 9 2
Junior Merchants	300	Ditto	3,399	2,930 3 0	244 2 11
Factors and Writers	200	Ditto	2,266	1,953 7 0	161 12 7

The Governor-General in Council having thought proper to rescind the resolutions of August, 1792, as well as those of the 5th April and 6th September, 1793, relative to the salaries of Writers on the establishment, it has been determined that Writers, for the first and second years after the date of their arrival in Calcutta, shall receive 300 Sicca Rupees per month; and for the third, 400 Sicca Rupees, and no more, excepting the monthly sum allowed for a moonshee, be their situation what it may; that afterwards they shall be permitted to draw the allowances of the offices which they hold, supposing them competent so to do by Act of Parliament.

The salaries of all the Writers on this establishment are to be regulated by this rule from the 1st of May next.

Published by order of the Governor-General in Council, April 13, 1795.

The following is an extract from a general letter from the Court of Directors, dated July 3, 1795.

"The following is the rule to be observed in the several cases stated in the paragraphs, for such persons as may be appointed Writers by us in any season, who are at the time of such appointment residing in India. Their period of actual service in India is to commence from the time of arrival at the Presidency, to which he may be nominated, of the first Writer from Europe, of the same season; and with respect to the Writers appointed in Europe, their period of actual service in India is to commence from the time of their arrival at the Presidency, at which they are to serve."

The following is an extract from the resolutions of the Governor-General in Council, May 5, 1809.

"The Governor-General in Council, adverting to the resolutions of Government of the 13th of April, 1795, which determined that the allowance to be drawn by the Junior Servants during the first two years of their residence in India, shall be fixed at 300 Sicca rupees per month, observes that, under this resolution, the students who remain in College during that time, are placed on a superior footing to those who, by their merit and exertions, have qualified themselves to enter upon the public service at an earlier period, since the former receive not only the same salary of 300 rupees per month, but are accommodated with apartments in the buildings, or draw an allowance of 80 rupees per month for house-rent.

"The Governor-General in Council, being of opinion that it would be both unjust and inexpedient that the Junior Servants should suffer any disadvantage in point of income, from circumstances which are highly creditable to them, it is judged proper that the resolutions of the 13th of April, 1795, be rescinded; and that the Junior Servants of the Company, on leaving College, be permitted to draw the allowances of the office to which they may be appointed, provided that, during the three first years of their local residence, those allowances do not exceed the sum of 400 rupees per month, to which they are restricted by Act of Parliament."

Travelling Charges.—The following document is extracted from the Calcutta Gazette of the 28th of August, 1788:

"As difficulties and delays have unavoidably occurred in auditing bills for travelling charges by the present table of rates, which comprehends only a certain number of stations, and appears to be otherwise imperfect, the Governor-General in Council has been pleased to resolve and order—

"I. That the present table of rates shall be done away, from the end of this month.

"II. That two proportionable rates, per mile, for all travelling charges, whether by land or water, shall be established in its stead, the one applicable to all residents, collectors, agents, judges of adawluts, and commissioners; the other to all assistants, registrars of adawluts, and surgeons.

"III. That two Sicca rupees and two annas per mile shall be allowed to the former, and one rupee one anna to the latter."

DEPUTATION ALLOWANCE.—Deputation allowance is granted at the rate of twelve Sicca rupees per diem to a registrar, assistant, &c. when deputed to act at a distance from their own station, to any capacity. A certificate must be furnished of the date on which they took charge, as allowance is not to commence till that period: and also a certificate on their delivering over charge (the allowance ceasing on that day), which must be furnished to the civil auditor, accompanied by the first and last bills when sent for audit.

The following resolutions were passed in the Revenue and Judicial Department, April 6, 1810.

"The rule established by which persons in the junior branch of the service are permitted to draw an extra allowance of twelve rupees per day, when employed on deputation, appears to Government to require revision and modification. The following scale has been accordingly adopted for the payment of extra allowances to the different classes of officers in the Revenue and Judicial Department:

Zillah Judges, deputed to officiate as Judges of Appeal and Circuit.....500 Rupees per month.
Collectors, deputed to officiate as Zillah Judges and Magistrates .....500 ditto.
Registrars, deputed to officiate as Zillah Judges and Magistrates, including compensation for commission on suits, fees, &c.....500 ditto.
Registrars, deputed to officiate as Collectors, including ditto ..... 12 ditto per day.
Assistants, deputed to officiate as registrars, exclusive of fees on the decision of suits ..... 6 ditto.
Assistants, whether in the Revenue or Judicial Department, who may be deputed to officiate at any other than their fixed stations..... 6 ditto.

"The Vice President in Council at the same time resolves, that whenever registrars, or assistants to the magistrates, or collectors, may be employed on actual duty in the interior of any district, they shall be permitted to draw the full deputation allowance of 12 rupees per day.

"Exclusively of the officers above specified, others are occasionally deputed on temporary duty from the Board of Revenue, Board of Commissioners, and other public establishments. In those cases Government will decide on the temporary allowances such officers shall draw in consequence of the deputation."

"April 24, 1810.—The Vice President in Council, adverting to the resolutions of Government in the Judicial Department, under April 6th, 1810, is of opinion, that corresponding rules should be adopted in the Commercial Department, for determining the extra allowances to be drawn by the public servants while employed on deputation.

"Ordered, That the following allowances be granted, to take effect from the 1st of May next, in all cases to which this may be applicable.

"To servants out of employ, who may be deputed to officiate as commercial residents, or salt and opium agents, the sum of 1000 Sicca rupees per month, when they may not be entitled to draw a proportion of the commission.

"To officers above the rank of Assistants, who may be deputed to officiate as Residents or Agents, in cases where any addition to the salaries of their own offices may be judged necessary, 500 Sicca Rupees per month.

"To assistants officiating at other stations for residents, or agents, or superintendent of the salt chokies, 12 Sicca rupees per day.

"To assistants deputed to other stations to officiate as assistants, 6 Sicca rupees per day.

"In the preceding cases, travelling charges at the established rates will be allowed to the party, to and from the station to which he may be deputed.

"To assistants deputed to the subordinate aurungs dependent on their own factory, 12 Sicca rupees per day, to include all travelling expences."

List of Articles procurable at Bengal, with Directions how to chuse them.

ANNOTTA

Is a dry hard paste, prepared from the seeds of a plant common in the East and West Indies; the best is from the latter part, and is a dry hard compact substance, brownish on the outside, and of a beautiful red colour within. It is generally imported in lumps wrapped up in leaves. It has occasionally been brought from Bengal, the best specimens of which have been nearly equal to the West India kind. In 1795 a quantity averaged 3s. per lb. the best sold for 6s. 6d. Spanish annotta usually fetches from 6s. to 7s. per lb. The following are the only quantities imported and sold in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive. In March sale, 1804, 157lbs. sold for £9. September sale 1805, 554lbs. sold for £65.

The permanent duty on annotta is 25s. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty 8s. 4d. per cwt.

ARROW ROOT

Is prepared from a root resembling the galangal, common in the East and West Indies. It is obtained by the following process:—the roots, when a year old, are dug up, washed in water, and beaten in deep wooden mortars to a pulp; it is then put into a tub of clean water, well washed, and the fibrous part thrown away. The milky liquor, being passed through a sieve or coarse cloth, is suffered to settle, and the clear water is drawn off; at the bottom of the vessel is a white mass, which is again mixed with clean water, and drained; lastly, the mass is dried in the sun, and is pure starch. It has occasionally been imported from Bengal; but the prices it has fetched at the Company's sales, have not been such as to encourage a perseverance in the importation of it.

BORAX

Is dug up in a crytallized state from the bottom of certain lakes in Thibet, and is of two sorts, viz.

Rough Borax, or Tincal, is in a very impure condition, consisting partly of six sided crystals, but chiefly of smaller irregular ones, of a white or green colour, joined together in one lump by a fetid, greasy substance, mixed with sand, stones, and other impurities. Tincal should be chosen in the cleanest and brightest solid pieces, resembling white sugar candy, greasy to the touch, and of a strong rank smell.

Refined Borax should be chosen of a pungent but somewhat sweet taste, perfectly white, resembling crystals of alum, rather a greasy appearance, but free from all impurities: it readily dissolves in hot water, and swells and bubbles in the fire.

The following is an account of the quantities of rough borax, or tincal, and of refined borax, imported and sold at the Company's sales in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive, together with the sale amount of each kind, and the average price per cwt.

Years	Rough Borax, or Tincal.			Refined Borax.		
	Cwt.	£	Aver. per Cwt.	Cwt.	£	Aver. per Cwt.
1804	822	2562	3 4 9	1007	3484	3 9 2
1805	15	62	4 2 8	1150	3516	3 1 2
1806	40	211	5 5 6	115	365	3 3 6
1807	113	422	3 14 8	220	628	2 17 0
1808	—	—	—	52	220	4 4 7

16 cwt. of rough, and 20 cwt. of refined borax are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty on refined borax is 1s. and the war duty 4d. per lb. and on unrefined, the former is 4½d. and the latter 1½d. per lb.

CASTOR OIL

Is obtained from the seeds of the Palma Christi tree, of which there are several varieties. It is separated from the seeds by *boiling* or expression; the former method procures the largest quantities, but it has less sweetness, and becomes rancid much sooner than that obtained by expression. Genuine castor oil is thick and viscid when obtained by expression; the oil that is somewhat opaque is newer, and said to be more effectual in medicine than that which is pellucid and of a yellow colour. The colour of the recent oil is a blueish green, approaching to solidity in the cold, resembling in that state the colour of amber, and almost pellucid. Castor oil should be chosen of a pale colour, inclining to a greenish cast, almost insipid to the taste, with but little smell, and of a good consistence; that which is dark coloured and rancid, should be rejected.

The following are the quantities of castor oil imported, and sold at the East India sales, in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive, with the sale amount, and the average price per pound.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.		Aver. per lb.		
	lbs.	£	lbs.	£	lbs.	£	£	s.	d.
1804	20207	2309	—	—	20207	2309	0	2	3
1805	4603	258	15627	1944	20230	2202	0	2	5
1806	—	—	1352	27	1352	27	0	0	5
1807	4727	774	8200	1302	12927	2076	0	3	3
1808	3503	49	659	7	4162	56	0	0	3

16 cwt. of castor oil are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is 9d. per lb. and the temporary or war duty 3d. making in the whole 1s. per lb.

CHILLIES

Are long roundish taper pods, divided into two or three cells full of small whitish seeds. When this fruit is fresh, it has a penetrating acrid smell; to the taste it is extremely pungent, and produces a most painful burning in the mouth. They are occasionally imported dry, and form the basis of Cayenne pepper; put in vinegar when ripe, they are an acceptable present in Europe. At Bengal the natives make an extract from the chillies, which is about the consistence and colour of treacle. In September, 1803, 19 cwt. of chillies sold for £33, and in March sale, 1807, 66 cwt. sold for £66.

COCHINEAL

Is an insect which lives upon different species of the opuntia, and is imported in large quantities from South America, in the form of little grains of an irregular figure, of a deep reddish purple colour, and covered more or less with a whitish down. They are light, and easily rubbed to powder between the fingers. On one side they are roundish and wrinkled; the other is flat.

The attention of the East India Company has been for many years directed to the production of this insect; but hitherto with little success. What has been brought from India has been very small, not very abundant in colouring matter, and very inferior to any brought from New Spain. It is used only in dying coarse goods; and what has been imported, has sold from 3s. to 5s. per lb.; the price of the best Spanish cochineal varying from 28s. to 40s. per lb.

Cochineal is an article in general demand at Bombay, and occasionally at China: for the former market the large black grain is preferred, as free from the grey or silvery appearance as possible. In purchasing this commodity, care should be taken that the dark colour has not been occasioned by art: this may be discovered by its smell, which is unpleasant, whereas genuine cochineal is quite free from smell.

From papers laid before the House of Commons, it appears that the average quantity consumed in Great Britain, from 1776 to 1800, was 171,169 lbs. per annum, which was considered to be equal to one fourth of the whole quantity imported into Europe from South America.

The permanent duty on East India cochineal is 6d. per lb. and the temporary or war duty 2d. per lb. On cochineal dust the former is 1½d. and the latter ½d. per lb.

GHEE

Is the butter made from the milk of buffaloes, and clarified; it is an article of very considerable commerce in various parts of India, and generally conveyed in duppers, or bottles made of hide, resembling what is called a carboy; it will keep sweet a considerable time. The duppers contain from 10 to 40 gallons each. The price varies according to the quality and demand, generally from 6 to 8 seers for a rupee in some parts of Bengal.

GINGER

Is the root of a reed-like plant growing spontaneously in the East and West Indies, and China; it is in knotty, branched, flattish pieces; when freed from the outer bark, of a pale colour, and fibrous texture. It is imported in considerable quantities from Bengal, and should be chosen in large roots, new, not easily broken, of a light brownish green colour, resinous within, and of a hot, pungent, aromatic taste. That which is small, dark coloured, soft, or very fibrous, should be rejected. It is sometimes imported green from the East Indies.

The following are the quantities of ginger imported and sold at the East India Company's sales, in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive, with the sale amount, and average price per cwt.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.		Aver. per Cwt.		
	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	£	s.	d.
1804	—	—	111	265	111	265	2	7	9
1805	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1806	285	925	1001	2991	1286	3916	3	0	11
1807	570	1488	229	581	799	2069	2	11	9
1808	925	2182	1320	3447	2245	5629	2	10	2

16 cwt. of dry and 20 cwt. of green ginger are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is 14s. 6d. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty 4s. 10d. making in the whole 19s. 4d. per cwt.

HEMP.

Hemp, either in a wild or cultivated state, is to be found in almost every part of the globe: in Persia, Egypt, and various parts of the East Indies, China, New Zealand, Canada, Nova Scotia, &c. yet as the principal consumption is for naval purposes, the growth of it upon an extended scale is more immediately confined within the limits of Europe. It is raised in various parts of France, Spain, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, in several of the Italian States, and in some parts of Great Britain and Ireland; but, with the exception of a trifling export from Italy, none of these countries produce it in quantities sufficient for their internal consumption. The grand mart for it, as an article of commerce, is Russia, where it is grown in large quantities, and of the best quality, in the southern and western provinces bordering upon Poland, and in the provinces of Poland, which in the late partition of that kingdom have fallen to the share of Russia. The rivers of Poland which flow to the northward, and fall into the Baltic in the Prussian dominions, pass through some of the countries where hemp is cultivated; but as such countries belong to Russia, and she commands the course of the rivers, the whole of the hemp near the Baltic may with propriety be said to be in the power of that Government.

The hemp-plant in Botany, cannabis sativa, has a long root comparatively slender, divided into branches, and full of fibres; the stalk is thick and ridged, or somewhat angular; it grows from six to twelve feet in height, and taller in warm than cold countries. The leaves are divided into five, in the manner of the fingers; they feel rough, and are notched at the ends. The male plants are distinguished from the female in the cultivation and management of the crop.

Hemp has been cultivated in Bengal from time immemorial for the purpose of intoxication; but is never used by the natives for cordage or cloth, as in Europe. The plant is called by them Ganja, and the intoxicating preparation made from it, Bang. There is no perceptible difference between the European and Bengal plant. There is no doubt but the latter, if duly prepared, might be applied to every purpose for which the former is used, and that it would be equally fit for them; but it would require to be cultivated in a different mode from that in common use by the natives of India.

In Bengal, instead of sowing the hemp very thick, as it ought to be done when the plant is intended for cordage, the natives sow it very thin, and afterwards transplant the young plants, placing them at a considerable distance from each other, often nine or ten feet. By this mode the plant grows to a large size, a great deal too large to admit of the stalks being properly bruised. This mode of cultivation is too expensive, if used with a view of preparing cordage from the plant; but the ryots, or farmers, would, if due encouragement were held out to them, readily adopt the European mode of cultivating the hemp, and also of dressing the fibres for cordage. Dressed hemp might be procured at 8 Sicca rupees per maund, or £28 per ton; and when the mode of cultivation is better known, and the ryots find they have a certain market for their produce, it is probable they may be able to afford dressed hemp at a much lower price.

There are many other vegetable substances used by the natives for cordage, &c. such as murgha, kantala, merty-paut, coir, and gumatty; but the principal, and those by far in the greater use, are sunn and paut: these are cultivated at Comercolly, Chittagong, Jungypore, &c.

At Comercolly there are two species of sunn; the best is called phool, the other boggy: the former grows about four feet high, and produces the strongest, whitest, and most durable kind of sunn; the other grows about seven feet high, but its produce is darker coloured, and not so strong as the phool-sunn.

In Chittagong very little hemp is raised; except for the purpose of preparing bang.

In Jungypore there are four species of plants cultivated, which produce different kinds of raw materials, fit for cordage and other uses. The first is called by the natives ghore-sunn, and approaches very near to the hemp-plant. The article next in quality to the ghore-sunn is the paut; but as it does not grow to the height of above four feet, and shoots out many lateral branches, which render the fibres very difficult to be separated from the woodey parts, it is not a profitable article to the landholder: it is in general found near the houses of the inhabitants, the leaves and tender shoots being used as an article of food. The third plant producing a species of hemp, is called by the natives cooch-murden-paut. The fourth description of plant, is called amleeah-paut, and this is in the most general use throughout the country for coarse cordage, and other purposes which do not require the fine twine produced from the ghore-sunn.

The cultivation of this important plant in our colonies has not only at all times met with encouragement from the Government, but also of late years from the East India Company in Bengal, where extensive experiments have been made in the culture of hemp and flax on their account; and it is probable that in the course of a few years, hemp from India, under the fostering care of the Company, will become a new branch of trade, in a similar manner as raw silk and indigo have already.

Many laws have been made, and bounties given, to encourage the growth of hemp and flax in the British plantations in America, and at home; all of which have had but little effect, more particularly at home, where the quantity of hemp raised, is stated not to exceed 300 tons per annum; the land-owners and farmers being prejudiced against the raising it, from the notion that it impoverishes the soil.

The following statement of the quantities of hemp and flax imported into Great Britain in the years 1786 to 1803 inclusive, will shew the immense national advantages which would be derived from growing our own hemp and flax, or by a proper encouragement in the culture of it in the East Indies, so as to render us independent of those nations on whom the country at present depend for a regular supply.

Years.	Hemp. Cwt.	Flax. Cwt.	Years.	Hemp. Cwt.	Flax. Cwt.
1786	291,482	244,469	1795	574,622	225,852
1787	379,801	269,679	1796	618,485	321,239
1788	564,070	261,970	1797	488,176	209,681
1789	472,263	139,224	1798	647,832	389,987
1790	592,305	257,221	1799	752,387	418,736
1791	378,811	308,700	1800	596,000	410,000
1792	567,188	243,323	1801	741,000	271,000
1793	553,831	271,248	1802	488,000	277,000
1794	582,755	348,366	1803	727,000	294,000

From the foregoing statement it will be seen that in some years there have been imported into Great Britain upwards of 37,000 tons of hemp, and 20,000 tons of flax, exclusive of 4,000 tons of raw linen yarn, and about a similar quantity of linen and linseed. The official value of those articles imported in 1799, was

Hemp	£639,685	Linen yarn	£325,367
Flax	828,401	Linseed	105,170

forming in the whole a total of £2,098,623, of which only £9,065 of hemp was exported.

Since the above period our connection with Russia has been frequently interrupted; in consequence of which, the price of hemp has fluctuated from £65 to £130 per ton; flax, and other Russian produce in proportion. In the years 1807-8-9 the value of hemp and flax imported was as under:

	Hemp.	Flax.	Total.
Year ending 5th of January, 1807	£1,732,114	£1,009,812	£2,741,926
Ditto 1808	1,786,857	1,187,306	2,974,163
Ditto 1809	611,760	618,307	1,230,067

The East India Company have imported from Bengal and Bombay small quantities of hemp, though to little advantage; a prejudice seeming to prevail against the Indian hemp, in a similar manner as in the infancy of the trade in raw silk and indigo, there was against those articles. The very cheap rate at which hemp and flax can be produced in India, renders it peculiarly desirable that the cultivation and importation of these most essential articles should receive every encouragement, more particularly at the present period. The following are the quantities of hemp imported and sold by the East India Company in the years 1803 to 1810 inclusive:

1803	Cwt. 4,820	£12,610	1807	Cwt. 4,738	£10,053
1804	4,165	8,335	1808	4,023	10,562
1805	3,399	6,240	1809	1,543	5,606
1806	6,421	14,087	1810	2,555	2,742

exclusive of some small quantities imported by individuals in private trade and privilege.

The duties on hemp, rough or undressed, or any other vegetable substance of the nature and quality of undressed hemp, and applicable to the same purposes, imported from India, are, permanent duty 5s. per ton of 20 cwt. and temporary or war duty, 1s. 8d. making in the whole 6s. 8d. per ton. The freight is calculated by measurement, allowing 50 cubical feet to a ton.

HIDES

Are sometimes brought from India, both in a raw and cured state; but the length of the voyage, and the high rate of freight, prevent their becoming an extensive article of trade, though Bengal, it is conjectured, could supply the demand of the home market, if they could be properly cured: but they would never answer when salted, from the high price of salt in Bengal.

The following are the quantities of various sorts of hides imported and sold at the Company's sales in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive, together with the sale amount.

1805	551 hides sold in the March sale	for	£57
1806	500 ditto	March sale	125
1807	5720 ditto	March sale	1,035
	615 ditto	September sale	75
	75 dressed Buffalo hides sold in ditto		23
	40 raw Buffalo hides sold in March sale		21
1805	2738 tanned hides sold in March sale		14
1806	5090 ditto	September sale	451

The following are the present duties on hides on importation into Great Britain, viz.

	Permanent Duty.	War Duty.
Buffalo, bull, cow, or ox, not tanned, tawed, or in any way dressed .... per hide	£0 0 6	£0 0 2
Ditto, tanned, and not otherwise dressed ..... per lb.	0 0 7½	0 0 2½
Horse, mare, or gelding, in the hair, not tanned, or in any way dressed..per hide	0 0 6	0 0 2
Ditto, tanned, and not otherwise dressed ..... per lb.	0 0 7½	0 0 2½
Hides, or pieces of hides, raw or undressed, not particularly enumerated, or otherwise charged with duty ..... per cent.	30 0 0	10 0 0
Ditto, tanned, tawed, or in any way dressed, not particularly enumerated, or otherwise charged with duty ..... per cent.	90 0 0	30 0 0

20 cwt. of Hides are allowed to a ton. For the remaining duties on skins, &c. see Skins.

HORNS.

Buffalo horns are occasionally brought from Bengal, and are generally allowed to pass as dunnage when brought by the commanders of the Company's ships; but they will not bear the heavy charge of freight. They should be chosen large, free from cracks and flaws, as straight as possible, and in their original state, or they will be subject to the manufactured duty.

The following are the quantities imported and sold in the years 1803 to 1808 inclusive.

1803, September sale	25,563 Buffalo horns sold for	.....	£293
1804, March sale	13,048 ditto	.....	105
1805, March sale	11,911 ditto	.....	99
—— September sale	2,141 ditto	.....	16
1806, September sale	3,645 ditto	.....	70
1807, September sale	6,817 ditto	.....	93

20 cwt. of Buffalo horns are allowed to a ton.

The following are the present duties on horns, viz.

	Permanent Duty.	War Duty.
Buffalo, cow, bull, or ox ..... per 100	£ 0 3 6	£ 0 1 2
Horns manufactured ..... per cent.	51 5 0	17 1 8
Ditto unmanufactured, not otherwise enumerated or described ..per cent.	20 0 0	6 13 4

INDIGO is a dye prepared from the leaves and small branches of a plant termed the indigo plant, of which there are many varieties, the most remarkable of which is the Tinctoria, a native of Asia, Africa, and America, from which the dye is made. The root of this plant is three or four lines thick, and more than a foot long, of a faint smell, something like parsley; from which issues a single stem nearly of the same thickness, about two feet high, straight, hard, almost woody, covered with a bark slightly split, of a grey ash colour towards the bottom, green in the middle, reddish at the extremity, and without the appearance of pith inside. The leaves are ranged in pairs round the stalk, of an oval form, smooth, soft to the touch, furrowed above, of a deep green on the under side, and connected with a very short pedunele. From about one-third of the stem to the extremity there are ears that are loaded with very small flowers, from 12 to 15, but destitute of smell. The pestil, which is in the middle of each flower, changes into a pod, in which the seeds are enclosed.

This plant requires a good soil, well tilled, and not too dry; the seed, which, as to figure and colour, resembles gunpowder, is sown in the broad cast during the latter months of the hot season, or at the commencement of the rains. Continual attention is required to eradicate the weeds; and with no further labour, the early plant is ready for cutting in the beginning of August, and the fields arriving successively at maturity, supply the works until the commencement of October.

When the plant has been cut, it is placed in layers in a large wooden vessel, and covered with water. It soon ferments, the water becomes opaque, and assumes a green colour. When the fermentation has continued long enough, which is judged of by the paleness of the leaves, and which requires from 6 to 24 hours, according to the temperature of the air, and the state of the plant, the liquid is drawn off into large flat vessels, where it is constantly agitated till the blue flocculi begin to make their appearance;—fresh water is now poured in, which causes the blue flakes to precipitate. The yellow liquid is then drawn off, and the sediment, when the water is sufficiently drained from it, is formed into small cakes, and dried in the shade.

The indigo imported from India is classed by the trade under the following denominations: East India, blue, purple, violet, and copper. The chief signs of good indigo are its lightness, and feeling dry between the fingers; its swimming in water; if thrown upon burning coals, its emitting a violet coloured smoke, and leaving but little ashes behind. In chusing Indigo, the large regular formed cakes should be preferred, of a fine rich blue colour, externally free from the white adhesive mould, and of a clean neat shape, as it is much depreciated in consequence of an irregular shape in the cakes, and the incrustation of white mould: when broken, it should be of a bright purple cast, of a close and compact texture, free from white specks or sand, and when rubbed with the nail, should have a beautiful shining copper-like appearance: it should swim in water, and when burnt by the candle, it should fly like dust. That which is heavy, dull coloured, and porous, should be rejected; likewise the small and broken pieces, which, though equally good in quality with regular formed cakes, do not obtain an equal price.

The culture and manufacture of indigo have been known and practised in India from time immemorial. The ancients were acquainted with this dye, under the name of Indicum; and Europe was for many ages supplied by India previous to the discovery of America. *Towards the close of the sixteenth century it was* not known in England what plant produced indigo. In Hackluyt's *Remembrances to Master S. in 1582*, he was instructed "to know if the Anile that coloureth blue, be a natural *commodity of those parts (Turkey)*, and if it were compounded of an herb, to send the seed or root, with the order of sowing, &c. that it might become a natural commodity in the realms, as woad was, that the high price of foreign woad might be brought down." In the early period of the English trade with the East Indies, *indigo from Agra formed* the most extensive and profitable branch of the Company's imports; and in 1620 Mr. *Mann* states the importation to be 200,000 lbs. which cost 1s. 2d. per lb. and sold in England at 5s. per lb. Gerarde, who wrote in 1597, is wholly silent about indigo, and so is Johnson, in 1632; but Parkinson, who wrote in 1640, treats largely of it; he calls it "Indico, or Indian woade," and gives the form of the leaf; he then describes

it, first, from Francis Ximenes in De Laet's Description of America; and, secondly, from Finch's Account in Purchas's Pilgrims. Even in 1688 Mr. Ray states, it was not agreed among botanists what plant it was from which indigo was made.

The Company's trade in indigo was carried on for more than a century with considerable success; but it was relinquished to favour the introduction of the commodity from the British West Indies, where the cultivation had been taken up, and carried to great perfection both in Barbadoes and Jamaica: but the legislature having laid a tax of 3s. 6d. per lb. on it about 1745, the West Indian planters dropped the cultivation of it entirely. It was afterwards cultivated in Carolina with such considerable success, that in 1747, 200,000lbs. weight of it was shipped for England, and sold very well. At this period, except what was imported from the East Indies, and the small quantities from America, France supplied from her West India Islands the greatest part of Europe with it, and England and Ireland were estimated to pay to France about £200,000 annually for this commodity. It was also raised in East Florida of so good a quality, that some sold as high as 8s. 9d. per lb. The acquisition of India, and the separation of America from the mother country, having changed the relative situations which those countries bore to Great Britain, led, in a great degree, to the revival of the indigo trade with India. In 1799 the East India Company entered into a contract with an enterprising individual then resident at Calcutta, at very encouraging prices, which led others to embark in the cultivation, from whom the Company also made purchases. In the support of this commodity, the Company are stated to have lost on the sale of their purchases, £80,000. Having thus fostered and protected this article of Indian produce, and brought it into a state of maturity, the Company agreed to leave it in the hands of their servants in India, and those who lived under their protection, to serve as a safe and legal channel for remitting their fortunes to England. When the Company ceased purchasing, the planters felt themselves void of resources for continuing their exertions; upon which the Company again stood forward, and afforded them assistance in the way of loan, having the security of their produce for the payment of the sales in London, to the extent of £884,734 in the course of a few years. With this aid they persevered in their exertions, and their labours have eventually been crowned with success. The article of indigo now bears a distinguished rank in the list of Asiatic produce, and may be considered the staple commodity of the private trade from India.

The demand of all Europe for indigo was lately estimated at 3,000,000lbs. per annum. The consumption cannot reasonably be supposed to increase rapidly, or in any great progression; but supposing it to extend to 4,000,000lbs. per annum, Bengal could supply the whole: and though some disadvantages have hitherto attended the cultivation of the article, the most discerning merchants look forward with certainty to a period when, from its quality and cheapness, the indigo of Bengal will preclude all competition in the market of Europe.

The following is an account of the official value of indigo exported from Bengal to London and other parts of the world in the years 1795 to 1805-6 inclusive.

1795–6	Sicca Rupees 62,51,424	1801–2	Sicca Rupees 38,48,139
1796–7	32,33,797	1802–3	29,73,754
1797–8	54,59,844	1803–4	44,69,930
1798–9	23,79,629	1804–5	64,77,041
1799–1800	35,53,949	1805–6	52,21,609
1800–1	39,88,293		

forming in the whole a total of Sicca Rupees 478,57,409, which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is £9,732,176, on an average £884,743 per annum; of the whole Sicca Rupees 457,91,816 was exported to London, leaving for all other parts of the world, Sicca Rupees 20,65,593.

The following is an account of the indigo imported into Great Britain in the years 1783 to 1802 inclusive; likewise the quantities exported, and what are reserved for home consumption.

Years.	IMPORTS.			EXPORTS.	HOME CONSUMPTION.
	East Indies.	Other Places.	Total.		
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1783	93,047	1,121,506	1,214,563	263,979	950,584
1784	237,230	1,259,149	1,496,379	293,731	1,202,648
1785	154,291	1,540,774	1,695,065	605,304	1,089,761
1786	253,345	1,725,712	1,979,057	542,454	1,436,603
1787	363,046	1,517,284	1,880,330	559,933	1,320,397
1788	622,691	1,474,220	2,096,911	508,209	1,588,702
1789	371,469	1,599,749	1,971,218	744,601	1,226,617
1790	531,619	1,309,196	1,840,815	861,908	978,907
1791	465,198	1,145,595	1,610,793	903,582	707,211
1792	581,827	1,285,927	1,867,754	899,659	968,095
1793	881,554	1,015,148	1,896,702	976,326	920,376
1794	1,364,620	1,464,874	2,829,494	1,087,588	1,141,906
1795	2,962,684	1,412,165	4,374,849	1,443,653	2,831,196
1796	3,897,120	651,550	4,548,670	1,939,217	2,609,453
1797	3,754,233	390,967	2,145,200	3,085,728	Ex. exceed Im. 940,528
1798	3,862,188	171,218	4,033,406	2,801,365	2,232,041
1799	2,429,377	549,943	2,979,320	2,699,707	279,613
1800	2,674,317	1,004,642	3,678,959	2,655,055	1,023,904
1801	2,109,611	936,302	2,935,913	2,320,107	615,806
1802	2,264,199	658,195	2,922,394	2,084,029	838,365

The following are the particular places to which the indigo was exported in 1799:

Denmark	lbs. 38,162	Flanders	lbs. 349
Russia	296,878	Italy	6,492
Sweden	47,113	Turkey	75,614
Poland	8,542	Ireland	114,578
Prussia	19,341	Isle of Man	2,050
Germany	2,080,330	Gibraltar	2,588
Holland	6,013	America	1,627

The following is an account of the indigo imported by individuals in private trade and privilege, and sold at the East India Company's sales; together with what has been imported on account of the Company in the years 1803 to 1809 inclusive; and the sale amount.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.	
	lbs.	£	lbs.	£	lbs.	£
1803	183,603	76,385	1,887,379	694,752	2,070,982	771,137
1804	848,914	367,039	1,503,800	714,101	2,352,714	1,081,140
1805	1,183,965	483,228	2,299,351	909,630	3,483,316	1,392,858
1806	2,295,183	774,387	——	——	2,295,183	774,387
1807	2,022,113	861,708	3,091,202	992,110	5,113,315	1,853,818
1808	2,652,428	731,688	185,679	42,465	2,838,107	774,153
1809	3,976,829	912,010	371,370	83,928	4,727,595	1,102,309
Company	280,502	76,894	98,894	29,477		
1810	3,208,749	1,215,044	1,776,283	526,903	5,222,123	1,851,460
Company	237,081	108,513	——	——		

The permanent duty upon indigo, when taken out of the warehouses, either for exportation or home consumption, is 10s. 9d. per 100 lbs. and the war duty 3s. 7d. making in the whole 14s. 4d. per 100 lbs.

The following is the value of indigo imported into Great Britain from all parts in three years.

	East Indies.	Other Places.	Total.
Year ending 5th of January, 1807	774,387 lbs.	152,063 lbs.	926,450 lbs.
Ditto 1808	1,853,818	342,955	2,196,773
Ditto 1809	774,153	274,852	1,049,005

And the value of indigo exported from Great Britain during the same period, was as under:

Year ending 5th January, 1807	£1,116,379
Ditto 1808	822,825
Ditto 1809	661,534

The net produce of the duties of Customs on indigo, in the year ending the 5th of January, 1812, was £29,023.

It appears by the foregoing account, that in eight years, 1803 to 1810 inclusive, the sale amount of indigo, exported from Bengal by the East India Company and individuals, was £9,001,262; on an average £1,200,158 per annum, exclusive of some small quantities of prize indigo, the produce of various parts of India.

LAC

Is an article of considerable importance in many arts; it is principally produced in Bengal, and is a kind of wax, of which a species of insect, called the Coccus Lacca, or gum lac animal, forms cells upon trees like honey-combs. It is principally found upon the uncultivated mountains on both sides the Ganges, where it is produced in such abundance, that, were the consumption ten times greater than it is, the markets might readily be supplied; the only trouble in procuring it, is to break down the branches, and carry them to market. It is likewise produced in Pegu, and some other places to the eastward. It is distinguished in commerce into four kinds, viz. stick-lac, seed-lac, shell-lac, and lump-lac.

I. Stick-Lac is the substance, or comb, in its natural state, incrusting small branches or twigs. The best lac is of a reddish purple colour; for if it be pale, and pierced at the top, the value is diminished, because the insects have left their cells, and consequently these can be of no use as a dye, but probably may be better for varnish. Chuse the dark red kind, which, on chewing a small piece, will turn the spittle of a purple colour; when held up against the light, it should look bright and lively, and when broken, should appear in diamond-like points. That which is yellow or brown, should be rejected.

This sort is seldom imported. In the years 1803 to 1808 inclusive, only the following quantities were sold at the East India sales, viz.

1803, September sale	586 cwt. sold for	£1,180
1804, March sale	526	1,221
1808, March sale	82	881

16 cwt. of stick-lac are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is 5s. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty 1s. 8d. per cwt. making in the whole 6s. 8d. per cwt.

II. Seed-Lac is the former kind when separated from the twigs, and reduced into small pieces. This is seldom imported, it being manufactured into shell-lac in India. In the March sale, 1805, 19 cwt. of it were imported, and sold for £22.

18 cwt. of seed-lac are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is £2 2s. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty 14s. making in the whole £2 16s. per cwt.

III. Lump-Lac is in cakes, and formed from seed-lac liquified by fire. This is consumed in India in making ornamental bangles for the women's arms, and for other uses in a common way, for which the best shell-lac is used in the superior sorts.

IV. Shell-Lac is prepared from the cells liquified, strained, and formed into thin transparent sheets. Transparent, or amber coloured shell-lac is best, and which, on breaking a piece from the edge, appears of an amber colour: avoid the very thick, dark, or speckled. There is a kind very thin, which looks fine, but is really the black sort, run thin to deceive; the deceit will be discovered by breaking a piece, and observing if the edge is an amber colour; for if it is dark brown, it will not do. When laid on a hot iron, shell-lac, if pure, will instantly catch fire, and burn away with a strong, but not disagreeable smell. That which is specky, drossy, black, liver-coloured, dull, or cloudy should be rejected. The principal uses of this article are for varnishes and sealing-wax. The heat of the ship's hold is very apt to run this commodity into a solid mass, in which case, though it was originally of the best kind, its value is much depreciated.

The following are the quantities of shell-lac imported, and sold at the East India sales in the years 1803 to 1808 inclusive, with the sale amount, and average price per cwt.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.		Aver. per Cwt.		
	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	£	s.	d.
1803	16	—	1640	9800	1640	9800	5	7	6
1804	1596	8873	1030	5740	2626	14613	5	11	5
1805	867	5168	1510	7810	2377	12978	5	9	2
1806	736	3709	7	30	743	3739	5	16	4
1807	775	3971	48	150	823	4121	5	0	2
1808	181	918	58	325	239	1243	5	4	0

16 cwt. of shell-lac are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is £2 2s. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty 14s. making in the whole £3 16s. per cwt.

LAC-LAKE.

This article is imported from Bengal in small square cakes, similar in form to those of indigo; it should, when broken, look dark-coloured, shining, smooth, and compact; when scraped or powdered, it should be of a bright red colour, approaching to that of carmine. That which is sandy, light-coloured, and spongy, and which, when scraped, is of a dull brick-dust colour, should be rejected. The demand for lac-lake is gaining ground, it being used instead of cochineal in dying.

The following are the quantities of lac-lake imported, and sold at the East India sales, in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive, with the sale amount, and average price per cwt.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.		Average per lb.		
	lbs.	£	lbs.	£	lbs.	£	£	s.	d.
1804	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
1805	—	—	2165	388	2165	388	0	3	7
1806	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
1807	845	145	5269	2139	6114	2284	0	7	4
1808	65	13	—	—	65	13	0	4	0

16 cwt. of lac-lake are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is 3d. per lb. and the temporary or war duty 1d. per lb. making in the whole 4d. per lb.

MYRABOLANS

Are dried fruits of the plum kind, brought from Bengal and other parts of the East Indies; there are five kinds of them, viz.

I. India Myrabolans are a small long fruit, of the size of a finger's end, black without and within, without stone, and very hard. Chuse such as are black, plump, and dry, of a sharpish astringent taste, and the heaviest that can be procured.

II. Chebulic Myrabolans very much resemble a date, but are rather larger and longer, and have five corner ridges of a yellowish brown colour. These should be chosen fleshy and plump, the least wrinkled and black that is possible: such as are resinous within, of a brownish colour, an astringent taste, with a little bitterness, are to be preferred.

III. Bellerick Myrabolans are a small fruit of the bigness of a nutmeg, of a reddish yellow without, and yellowish within, having a stone with a kernel; this sort is of little value.

IV. Emblick Myrabolans are about the size of a gall-nut, rough and ridged on the outside; the plumpest and blackest of these are most esteemed.

V. Citron Myrabolans.—This kind grows in various parts of India, more particularly about Goa and Batticaloe on the Malabar Coast; they are about the size of a French plum, having a stone with a white kernel. The natives frequently candy them. Chuse your citron myrabolans of a reddish or golden yellow colour, well fed, heavy, and hard to break, and of an astringent disagreeable taste; such as are decayed, should be rejected.

The following is an account of the myrabolans imported, and sold at the East India sales, in the years 1803 to 1808 inclusive, with the sale amount, and average price per cwt.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.		Aver. per Cwt.		
	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	£	s.	d.
1803	—	—	682	645	682	645	0	18	11
1804	184	129	—	—	184	129	0	13	6
1805	22	8	—	—	22	8	0	7	3
1806	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	
1807	3	5	—	—	3	5	1	13	4
1808	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	

20 cwt. of myrabolans are allowed to a ton. The duty on dry myrabolans is permanent, 7s. and temporary, or war duty, 2s. 4d. per cwt.; on those candied, the former duty is 6d. and the latter 3d. per lb.

MUNJEET

Is a species of madder-root, imported from Bengal. The roots are long and slender, and when broken, appear of a fine red colour, having a yellowish pith inside; it imparts to water a dark red tincture, and its smell somewhat resembles liquorice root.

The following are the quantities of munjeet imported, and sold at the East India sales in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive, with the sale amount, and average price per cwt.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.		Aver. per Cwt.		
	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	£	s.	d.
1804	—	—	21	232	21	232	11	1	0
1805	149	1075	85	327	234	1402	6	0	0
1806	111	515	—	—	111	515	4	12	9
1807	204	683	562	1818	766	2501	3	5	4
1808	—	—	—	—	—	—		—	

16 cwt. are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is 3s. per cwt. and the war duty 1s. per cwt.

OPIUM is the produce of a species of the poppy, whose root and stem become pretty large, and abound with a bitter juice: they are cultivated in great abundance in the province of Bahar, and in other parts of Bengal. The stalk of this plant rises to the height of three or four feet, and produces long indented leaves, resembling those of the lettuce, while the flower has the appearance of a tulip. When at full growth, an incision is made at the top of the plant, from whence there issues a white milky juice, which soon concretes, and is scraped off the plants, and wrought into cakes: these are covered with leaves to prevent them sticking together, and in this situation are dried, and packed in chests lined with hides, and covered with gunny, each containing forty cakes, and weighing two maunds, and in that state exported to the places where it is esteemed. This drug is always in great demand in China, notwithstanding the prohibitions which have been from time to time issued against it; likewise in all the eastern countries, the Malay Peninsula, Sumatra, Borneo, Celebes, &c.

This preparation, though simple, requires great attention to prevent adulteration, to which it is liable if left to the cultivator: it is vitiated with a powder composed of the dried leaves and stalks of the poppy, made into a paste with gum Arabic, or some other mucilage.

Opium is very heavy, of a dense texture, commonly soft enough to receive an impression from the finger. It should be chosen moderately firm; its colour a very dark brown yellow, so dark that, unless held to the light, it appears black; of a strong smell and bitter taste; as free from leaves as possible; and care should be taken, by rubbing it between the finger and thumb, that there is no roughness or grittiness. That which is soft should be rejected.

The following is an account of the quantities of opium imported into England, distinguishing what came from Bengal, and what from all parts of Europe; the quantities exported, and the remainder of the imports which was retained for home consumption, from 1786 to 1801 inclusive.

Years.	IMPORTS.		Total.	Exports.	Home Consumpt.
	Bengal.	Europe.			
	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.	lbs.
1786	750	7,702	7,752	1,217	6,535
1787	——	5,873	5,873	1,655	4,218
1788	——	4,692	4,692	1,685	3,007
1789	——	13,923	13,923	377	13,546
1790	1,500	6,389	7,889	1,237	6,652
1791	——	9,073	9,073	1,104	7,969
1792	2,100	19,683	21,783	7,775	14,008
1793	1,554	32,008	33,562	1,261	32,301
1794	——	14,857	14,857	1,413	13,444
1795	——	2,083	2,083	999	1,084
1796	8,164	12,527	20,691	859	19,832
1797	1,522	5,661	7,183	2,371	4,812
1798	395	9,310	9,525	1,237	8,288
1799	7,295	17,153	24,448	3,229	21,219
1800	19,190	29,492	48,682	1,874	46,808
1801	14,951	39,304	54,255	10,361	43,894

Since the above period there have been two parcels of opium imported from Bengal, and sold at the Company's sales. In 1803, 28,339 lbs. sold for £11,454, and in 1809, 1991 lbs. sold for £2,249.

14 cwt. of opium are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is 5s. 6d. per lb. and the temporary or war duty 1s. 10d. making in the whole 7s. 4d. per lb.

The monopoly in the trade of opium, or the cultivation of the poppy, may be traced at least as far back as the commencement of the British influence in Bengal. The advantages resulting from it were for

several years merely considered as a part of the emoluments of certain officers under the Government. In the year 1773 it was taken out of their hands, and the profit of the trade assumed for the benefit of the Company. The provision of the article was for many years let out upon contract. The opium concern continued under the direction of the Board of Revenue till the beginning of the year 1793, when it was transferred to the Board of Trade, and regulations were passed respecting the terms of the contract for the provision of opium in Bengal, Bahar, and Orixa, which was extended for four years, from September the 1st, 1793, to the 31st of August, 1797, also respecting measures for the protection of the cultivators of the poppy, and for preventing illicit trade in the article. On the expiration of the contracts in 1797, the cultivation of opium was restricted to Bahar and Benares, and discontinued in Bengal; the mode of provision by agency was resorted to, and still continues in practice. In July, 1799, some regulations were published "for the guidance of all persons concerned in the provision of opium on the part of Government, and for preventing the illicit cultivation of the poppy, and the illicit importation or traffic in the article of opium." Under these regulations, which were further modified in 1807, the cultivation of the poppy, except on account of Government, is expressly prohibited; but it is left entirely at the option of the cultivator, to enter into engagements on account of Government at a settled price, or to decline it altogether.

The trade in opium is liable to be affected by many contingencies, not only from adverse seasons, but by the state of the markets to the eastward, which fluctuate considerably. The superior advantages of the agency system, and the measures resorted to for securing the provision of the drug pure and unadulterated, have proved of essential service, as appears from the following account of the revenue arising to Government from the trade in opium from 1792-3 to 1809-10 inclusive.

1792–3	£292,751	1798–9	£210,304	1804–5	£725,865
1793–4	304,954	1799–1800	372,025	1805–6	690,011
1794–5	354,921	1800–1	372,502	1806–7	480,069
1795–6	189,278	1801–2	376,658	1807–8	801,467
1796–7	179,950	1802–3	534,654	1808–9	594,978
1797–8	238,043	1803–4	463,161	1809–10	580,000

The Bengal opium is distinguished in commerce by two kinds, Patna and Benares; the former is most esteemed. The prices at the Company's sale in February, 1810, were, Patna opium, from 1525 to 1565 Sicca rupees, and Benares opium from 1425 to 1465 Sicca rupees per chest; and in August 1811, it had advanced to 1750 Sicca rupees per chest. The following is an account of the value of opium exported from Bengal in the years 1795–6 to 1805–6 inclusive.

1795–6	Sicca Rs. 13,08,360	1799–1800	Sicca Rs. 28,80,593	1803–4	Sicca Rs. 41,88,225
1796–7	13,31,255	1800–1	34,52,432	1804–5	64,12,283
1797–8	10,77,961	1801–2	27,51,515	1805–6	58,66,886
1798–9	12,55,579	1802–3	39,43,951		

The quantity exported in the year 1805-6 was shipped to the under-mentioned places.

China	Sicca Rupees 32,94,570	Coast of Coromandel	Sicca Rupees 61,968
Pinang and the Eastward	21,25,209	Pegu	15,110
Coast of Sumatra	3,20,748	Arabian and Persian Gulfs	1,755
Manilla	27,661	Coast of Malabar	15,515

The trade in opium to the eastward and China has much increased: in 1795–6, it was only Sicca rupees 11,63,835, of which 2,51,450 Sicca rupees was to China; the remainder to Pulo Pinang and the islands to the eastward.

BENGAL PIECE-GOODS

Are manufactured of innumerable qualities and dimensions in almost all parts of the country under this Presidency, and are distinguished by various names, according to the fabrics and the places where manufactured. The following are the names of a few of the numerous kinds, and the places where made.

Baftas.....Patna, Tanda, Chittagong, Allahabad, Beerbhoom, Koirabad, Luckipore.
Cossas.....Patna, Tanda, Allahabad, Johannah, Hurrial, Santipore, Mow, Lucknow.
Doreas .....Chunderconnah, Tanda, Dacca, Santipore, Hurripaul.
Mammoodies....Tanda, Allahabad, Koirabad, Johannah, Lucknow.
Mulmuls .....Dacca, Patna, Santipore, Ghazipore, Midnapore, Cossijirah, Malda.
Sannoes .....Tanda, Allahabad, Johannah, Mow, Balasore.
Terrindams.....Dacca, Santipore, Casmahbad, Baddawl, Hurripaul.

Piece-goods form the staple commodity of Bengal, from whence they are sent to all parts of India, to the United States of America, and to all parts of Europe. The following are the kinds imported into Great Britain, with the number of pieces allowed to a ton.

Addaties.....Pieces	700	Cushtaes.....Pieces	800	Mushrues.....Pieces R	800
Allachas	1200	Cuttannees .....R	800	Naibabies .....R	800
Allibalties	400	Diapers, broad	400	Nainsooks	400
Allibannies.....R	800	Ditto, narrow.....	600	Nillaes	800
Arrahs.....R	400	Dimities.....	600	Palampores	800
Atchabannies	800	Doreas.....	400	Pemascoes.....	800
Aubrahs	400	Doosooties .....R	400	Percaulahs	800
Baftas .....R	400	Dungarees..... R	400	Photaes.....R	800
Bandannoes.....R	800	Dooties.....R	400	Pulicat handkerchiefs...R	800
Betelleas.....	400	Dysucksoys	600	Puteahs.....R	400
Ditto handkerchiefs.....	400	Elatches.....R	800	Rings	400
Blue cloth.....R	400	Emmerties	600	Romals .....R	800
Calicoes	400	Ginghams, coloured.....	600	Sannoes	400
Callipatties .....R	400	Gurrahs	400	Seerbands	600
Cambays	400	Ditto, long	200	Seerbetties	400
Cambrics .....R	400	Habassies	600	Seerhauds .....R	400
Carpets .....R	400	Herba Taffaties	800	Seerhandconnaes	400
Carridarries.....	600	Humhums	400	Seersuckers	600
Charconnaes	600	Ditto, quilted.....	100	Shalbafts	400
Chillaes	600	Jamdannies.....	800	Sicktersoys .....R	800
Chintz of all sorts ....R	400	Jamwars	600	Soosies.....	400
Chinechuras .....R	800	Kincha cloth .....R	400	Sorts	400
Chowtars	600	Kissorisoys	600	Subnooms, or subloms....	400
Chunderbannies .....R	800	Laccowries	600	Succatoons .....R	800
Chundraconaes, thick...R	400	Lungees Herba	800	Taffaties, of all sorts...R	800
Chucklaes	400	Mammoodiatties.....	400	Tainsooks	400
Clouts .....R	400	Mammoodies.....R	400	Tanjebs	400
Coopees	600	Muggadooties .....R	400	Tartoreas	400
Corahs.....R	800	Mulmuls.....	400	Tepoys .....R	800
Cossas	400	Mulmul handkerchiefs ...	400	Terindams	400

The following is the mode in which the tonnage of piece-goods is ascertained:

When the letter R is against pieces of 400 to a ton, it shews those goods are to be reduced to a standard of 16 yards long and 1 broad; when against pieces of 800 to a ton, to 10 yards long and 1 broad.

EXAMPLE.—1000 pieces of 12 yards long and 1¼ broad, at 400 pieces to a ton, make 844 pieces, or 2 tons 44 pieces; and 1000 pieces of 10½ long by 1¼, at 800 to a ton, are 1,181 pieces, or 1 ton 381 pieces.

Previous to the renewal of the Charter in 1793, the trade in piece-goods was entirely in the hands of the Company. Since that period it has been open to individuals; in consequence of which, the Company state that their regular and established trade has been seriously injured by the interference of the private traders in the staple article of piece-goods; and in order to shew this, they place in a contrasted point of view the present with the former state of this branch of trade at various distinct periods.

The following is an account of the sales in the years 1772 to 1796 inclusive, on the average of 5 years.

	Quantity sold.	Sale Amount.	Average per Ann.	Medium Price per Piece.
	Pieces.	£	£	£ s. d.
1772 to 1776 inclusive.	3,129,514	5,416,371	625,903	1 14 7
1777 to 1781 ditto.....	2,575,127	4,400,862	515,025	1 14 4
1782 to 1786 ditto.....	2,932,779	5,875,819	586,556	2 0 0
1787 to 1791 ditto.....	3,546,128	6,067,044	709,255	1 14 2
1791 to 1796 ditto.....	3,946,087	6,251,928	789,217	1 11 8
Total in 25 years.	16,129,635	28,012,024	643,993	1 14 8

In looking to the sales, with a view to a comparison, it will be necessary to bear in mind, that in 1799 an Act passed, by which piece-goods were allowed to be warehoused on importation, on payment of a duty of 2½ per cent. on calicoes, and 7½ per cent. on muslins. This duty being paid by the Company on the goods upon their importation, they are allowed to be exported free from further duties; or, if intended for home consumption, they are subject to additional duties, to be paid by the purchaser on taking them out of the warehouses; or in other words, the former sale prices were with the duties included; in the sales from the 31st of August 1799, they are the net prices.

About 1796 the imports of piece-goods in privilege commenced on a regular system; since which, the quantities sold on account of the Company, and in privilege, appear to have been as follow:

Years.	COMPANY'S GOODS.			PRIVILEGE GOODS.			TOTAL.	
	Quantity	Sale Amount	Average	Quantity.	Sale Amount.	Average.	Quantity sold.	Sale Amount.
	Pieces.	£	£ s. d	Pie. s.	£	£ s. d.	Pieces.	£
1797	350,329	648,756	1 17 0	136,761	151,942	1 3 0	487,090	800,698
1798	723,127	1,219,818	1 14 0	127,810	182,594	1 8 6	850,937	1,402,412
M. S. 1799	334,115	508,584	1 10 6	79,727	133,336	1 13 6	1,017,212	1,335,679
S. S. ——	450,500	548,256	1 4 6	152,870	145,503	0 19 0		
1800	1,129,501	1,406,879	1 5 0	304,530	317,828	1 0 10	1,434,031	1,724,707
1801	838,712	1,179,447	1 8 6	396,444	379,569	0 19 1	1,235,156	1,559,016
1802	437,862	660,019	1 10 0	1,252,503	960,864	0 15 4	1,690,365	1,620,883
M. S. 1803	242,164	293,832	1 4 3	742,193	462,757	0 12 6	1,709,380	1,337,240
S. S. ——	381,477	378,199	0 19 9	343,546	202,452	0 11 10		
M. S. 1804	442,952	424,456	0 19 0	548,186	306,886	0 11 2	1,940,170	1,444,530
S. S. ——	518,019	493,106	0 19 0	431,013	220,082	0 10 2		
M. S. 1805	174,321	142,157	0 16 6	320,727	193,665	0 12 0	495,098	335,822
M. S. 1806	410,196	336,453	0 16 5	113,233	67,453	0 11 10	819,193	611,974
S. S. ——	199,500	146,466	0 14 9	96,264	61,502	0 12 0		

It is obvious from these accounts that, while the trade in East India piece-goods remained entirely with the Company, it was conducted wisely and discreetly, upon the true mercantile principle of regulating the imports in proportion to the currency of the demand. Another essential and equally important object was no less attended to, that of keeping up the respective fabrics to their established standard, as to quality and dimensions. Upon this head the good faith of the Company was so eminently conspicuous, that the buyers on the Continent could confidently, and without scruple, give their orders upon the bare authority of the invoice mark; and it often happened that the goods passed through various hands without undergoing the least inspection or examination whatever. The sales were also made at stated periods (twice in a year), and when the goods were declared, the buyers had an assurance that no further quantity would be sold until the ensuing half-yearly sale; in short, the whole routine of the business was conducted upon systematic principles, and to the perfect satisfaction of all parties concerned.

It will also be seen that when the annual imports of Bengal piece-goods were limited to from 7 to 800,000 pieces of the various assortments, they were readily taken off at the sales without any material difference in the selling prices, and that when the imports fell short of, or exceeded that quantity, the prices fluctuated in a correspondent proportion.

1797. In this year, when the Company could only offer to sale 350,329 pieces, and of privilege goods 136,761 pieces, making together but 487,087 pieces, the Company's goods experienced a rise of from £1 14s. to £1 17s. per piece, which was an advance of 3s. per piece upon the medium of the former year's sale, or equal to about 12 per cent.

1798. In this year, when there were sold of Company's goods 723,127 pieces, and of privilege goods 182,594, making together 902,571 pieces, the additional quantity, which nearly made up for the deficiency of the preceding year, reduced the price again to £1 14s. or about the medium rate of 25 years prior to 1796.

1799. The Company sold of their own goods 784,615 pieces, and of privilege goods 232,597 pieces, making together 1,017,212 pieces. The result of the increase was, that in the March sale of this year, before the alteration of the duties, the prices fell on the medium 3s. 6d. per piece, or about 13 per cent. below the accustomed standard; and on September, 1799, the first sale which took place under the new modification of the duties, the Company's goods sold at the medium of £1 4s. 6d. per piece, the reduction upon which is about equal to the portion of the duties which would have been drawn back under the old system. The privilege goods being of inferior assortments, sold at a medium of 19s.

1800. The plan for admitting East India goods to be entered upon the warehousing principle, was adopted with the laudable view of drawing to this country a considerable portion of the trade that was carried on between India and the Continent direct; and under the influence of this opinion, the Company's imports of piece-goods, which had been increased with a view to meet the expected demand, from about 800,000 pieces to 1,129,501 pieces, together with 304,531 pieces in privilege, making together 1,434,031 pieces, met with a ready sale in the ensuing year, at prices rather better than those of the preceding year, though the quantity was greater by upwards of 400,000 pieces, and the sale of coast piece-goods in the same year was nearly equal to 650,000 pieces.

1801. The Company's goods sold in this year were 838,712 pieces, and the privilege 396,444, making together 1,235,156; and from the circumstance of the Company's goods being short near 300,000 pieces of the preceding year, the medium price was increased from £1 5s. to £1 8s. 6d. or a rise of about 14 per cent. On the other hand, an increase of about 90,000 pieces in the privilege goods had the effect of lowering their rates from £1 0s. 10d. to 19s. 1d. or a reduction of about 8 per cent. on the former year.

1802. From the pressure of the war in India, the Company were unable to devote the accustomed

allotment of funds for the provision of goods to supply the sales of 1802; under this exigency the private traders were not only permitted, but invited, to make up the deficiency. The result was, that the Company in 1802 could only bring to sale the reduced quantity of 437,802 pieces, or but about one-half of their accustomed investment. This, however, had the effect of raising the prices to the medium of £1 10s. per piece. The private traders, in the same year, more than made up for the Company's failure, by importing the unprecedented quantity of 1,252,503 pieces, which, added to the Company's imports, made the total quantity for sale near 1,700,000 pieces. But so little attention had been paid to the quality, that the price of the privilege goods fell from 19s. 1d. which had been the medium rate of the preceding year, to 15s. 4d. per piece, or a reduction of full 21 per cent. At the same time it is to be noticed, that the deficiency of quality is found to be nearly 100 per cent. below the Company's usual assortments.

For the purpose of more clearly elucidating the evil effects that resulted from this improvident import on the part of the private traders, it will be proper to explain in this place, that, although in addition to 437,802 pieces sold by the Company, the further quantity of 1,252,503 pieces stand as sold upon the Company's books; yet such sale must be considered rather as nominal than real. The fact is, that owing to the increased imports in the three preceding years, the markets upon the Continent were not only stocked, but surcharged, particularly with low priced goods. This cause produced its natural effect. The prices that were offered at the Company's sales were so little satisfactory to the importers, that the principal part of the goods were bought in for the account of the respective proprietors, and remained on hand for the purpose of being disposed of by private negotiation whenever a more favourable change should take place: not less than 350,000 pieces of which were once lying in the Company's warehouses waiting for a market: these would have been out of time for exportation if the Lords of the Treasury had not extended the term beyond the three years allowed by law.

1803. Such was the depressed state of the trade, when the usual period arrived for bringing forward the March sale of 1803, at which period, although the very moderate quantity of 364,394 pieces of the Company's goods were offered, only 242,164 pieces could be disposed of, at rates by which the medium was reduced to £1 4s. 3d. or full 19 per cent. under the price of the preceding year. The remaining 122,230 pieces, or rather more than one-third of the quantity declared, were refused. At the same sale, and from the same cause, out of 238,754 pieces of coast goods which were tendered, only 133,085 pieces, or little above one-half, were sold at the medium rate of £1 6s. or 5s. 6d. per piece below the preceding year's sale price, which is a reduction of 18 per cent. The remaining 105,669 pieces were refused. The privilege goods, though considered here as part of the same sale, were not in fact sold till September, when out of 756,089 that were offered, 742,193 were either sold or bought in for the proprietors at the reduced price of 12s. 6d. per piece, or 19 per cent. below the prices of the preceding sales. The circumstances under which the September sale of 1803 took place, were no less adverse and discouraging. The sale of Company's goods in the last 18 months, it has been seen, was equal only to little more than half the quantity they had been accustomed to dispose of in a like space of time, even in the ordinary course of their concerns; notwithstanding which, it appears that, at the opening of the sale, which was postponed to the 20th of March, 1804, there were remaining in the buyers' hands, of Company's goods 73,533 pieces, of privilege 185,000 pieces, making together 258,533 pieces.

At this sale the 122,230 pieces of Bengal goods, which were refused at the former sale, with a further quantity, making together 494,648, as also 501,293 pieces of privilege goods, or in all 995,941 pieces, were declared, of which it appears only 381,477 pieces of the Company's were sold at a medium of 19s. 9d. per piece, or a further reduction of 19 per cent. below the last selling prices. The remaining 113,171 pieces, or near one-fourth of the quantity declared, were refused; and of the 501,293 pieces in privilege, 157,747 were altogether refused. The remaining 343,546 pieces were either sold outright or

bought in for the proprietors at an average rate of 11s. 10d. per piece, or rather more than 5 per cent. below the prices of the preceding year.

1804. At the commencement of the March sale, 1804, the quantity of Bengal piece-goods in the buyers' hands were, of Company's goods 80,767 pieces, and of privilege goods 567,142, total 647,909.

In this sale the 113,171 pieces of Bengal goods that were refused at the preceding sale, with a further quantity, making together 539,294 pieces, as also 762,250 pieces of privilege goods, or in all 1,301,480, were declared, of which only 442,952 pieces of the Company's were sold at an average of 19s. per piece, being about 4 per cent. lower than the preceding sale. The remaining 96,342 pieces were refused.

Of the privilege goods also, out of the 762,250 pieces offered, only 548,186 pieces passed the sale, at an average of 11s. 2d. per piece, or a further reduction of 6 per cent. below the former sale prices. The remaining 214,064 pieces were refused, among which were 55,255 pieces, part of those that had also been refused at the former sale.

In the September sale the Company's goods which were fixed to be sold on the 20th of February, 1805, were from time to time postponed, on account of the non-arrivals of the mails, till the 27th of March, when, out of 543,882 pieces declared, 518,019 pieces were sold at an average of 19s. per piece, being the same as at the preceding sale.

The privilege goods were also sold the 22d of April, 1805, at which time the quantity in the buyers' hands was 667,731 pieces. The number of pieces declared was 439,444, including the 214,064 pieces refused at the former sales, which were now offered at still lower rates, when 431,013 were sold at an average of 10s. 2d. per piece, or about 9 per cent. below the preceding prices.

Of the coast goods 307,148 pieces of Company's goods were declared, of which only 279,554 pieces were sold at an average of 18s. 4d. per piece, or near 6 per cent. below the rates of the preceding sale; the remaining 27,594 pieces were refused.

At this sale also 109,770 pieces of goods, belonging to individuals in the subscription investment, were sold at an average of 20s. 5d.

1805. The March sale of the Company's goods was fixed for the 28th of August. At this time, as none of the ships of the season were arrived, the Company had only 178,086 pieces of Bengal goods upon hand; nor did the privilege goods unsold exceed the number of 320,820 pieces, making together 498,906; yet notwithstanding this quantity, comparatively so inconsiderable, the Company's goods experienced a further reduction of from 19s. to 16s. 6d. per piece, or about 14 per cent. below the preceding sale. The privilege goods produced on a medium 12s. per piece.

The period for holding the September sale in the ordinary routine of the business, was fixed for the 12th of February, 1806, at which time it was the Company's intention to have offered 476,896 pieces of their own, and 113,233 pieces of privilege goods, making together 590,129 pieces; but such was the depressed state of the trade at the approach of this sale, that the buyers were desirous it might be altogether relinquished, in order that a further opportunity might be afforded for reducing their stock upon hand. It appears, by a return from the Bengal and coast warehouses, that at the time of making this application, the 17th of January, 1806, the buyers had then remaining upon hand in the Company's warehouses, 1,413,008 pieces of their former purchases; and it was asserted upon good authority, that, in addition to these, not less than 500,000 pieces more were lying upon the Continent, for which no demand was likely to be speedily found.

Under these circumstances, the Company judged it expedient to postpone the sale to the 12th of March, by which the September sale, 1805, altogether lapsed, and the goods so declared went over into 1806; at the March sale of which only 349,230 pieces were sold, and 127,666 of the Company's were refused. The 113,233 pieces in privilege were all sold or bought in. The average of the Company's goods was 15s. 7d.

per piece, and of the privilege 11s. 11d. In a subsequent part of this sale, in July, 60,966 pieces of prohibited goods of the Company's were sold, which make the total quantity to be 410,196 pieces, and the average 16s. 5d.

The result of the September sale was still more unfortunate. Out of 358,453 pieces of the Company's Bengal goods, and 96,364 pieces in privilege, making together the comparatively small quantity of 454,817, only 199,500 pieces of the Company's were sold at an average of 14s. 9d. the remaining 158,900 pieces were scratched. Of the privilege goods, the whole were either sold or bought in at an average of 12s.

From these facts may be drawn the following inferences:

1st. That the trade in Bengal piece-goods, while the management of it remained solely with the Company, was conducted upon steady, uniform, and consistent principles.

2d. That while so conducted, it gradually increased in the following proportions:

In the ten years, from 1777 to 1786 inclusive, the number of pieces sold per annum, was on the medium	550,790
In the five ensuing years, the like medium was	709,255
And in the ten years, from 1792 to 1801	777,237

3d. That by duly apportioning the imports to the rising demand, the prices in the above periods experienced but little variation.

4th. That in the three succeeding years, from 1802 to 1804 inclusive, although the Company's imports of Bengal piece-goods were reduced to 674,081 pieces per annum, which is upwards of 100,000 pieces less than the average of the preceding ten years, yet they experienced a depreciation in value equal to 33 per cent.

5th. That the depreciation is chiefly, if not altogether, to be ascribed to the excessive imports of the private traders, who, during the three years, from 1802 to 1804, brought to sale no less than 3,317,421 pieces, or on the medium 1,105,807 pieces per annum, the value of which appears to have fallen off in nearly a similar proportion.

That in the two last years, although the Company's goods, and those in privilege, have been reduced very considerably below what they were prior to the enlarged importation, the prices have also decreased in a similar proportion, so that at the last sale, out of 358,453 pieces of Company's goods, with the comparatively trifling quantity of 96,324 pieces in privilege, 158,000 pieces of the Company's were refused, and those that were sold, were disposed of at a rate equal to 40 per cent. below the usual medium prices.

Such are the mischiefs that have resulted from the interference of the private traders in the single branch of Bengal piece-goods only, which have been equally extended to those of the coast; but the evil has not merely been confined to the rivalship that has been experienced in the market at home. The Company have equally suffered from the effects of the competition that has been excited against them in the aurungs and manufacturing districts abroad, where eagerness of demand has unavoidably led to increase of price; and, what is no less to be regretted, the fabrics have been so shamefully debased, that, as one of the agents has justly observed, "the original standards are no longer to be seen." Various representations have been made to the Company of impropriety of conduct on the part of the private traders; and the following are a few of the most prominent.

The Board of Trade at Madras, in a letter to the Governor in Council, under date the 22d of June, 1800, observe, "The indulgence of trade in piece-goods was originally granted to individuals, under the express stipulation that they should not interfere with the Company's investment; but we lament to add, and experience has established it to be an undeniable fact, that the forbearance with which the agents of the private traders have been permitted to settle themselves in different parts of the coast, has not failed of being productive of serious prejudice to the Company's manufactures; for their object being confined to

the purchase of goods of any description, it becomes a matter of unconcern whether the quality or dimensions are deficient, and the natural consequence of such an evil tends to create an indifference on the part of the weaver, who, being certain on these occasions of obtaining a good price for his cloth, adopts, without remorse, the fraudulent practice of making use of bad materials; and we have reason further to believe, that the constituents to whom such goods are ultimately consigned, become liable to sustain a loss from their imperfections."

Again, on the 9th of April, 1803, they further observe, "The two prominent evils of which we have had cause to complain, are the great difficulties occasioned by the interference of the private agents in the provision of the Company's investments, and the ruinous debasement of the fabrics, both proceeding from a competition at a particular juncture, that admits of no delay, and consequently obliges them to purchase whatever they can procure, however inferior in its quality, of which urgent necessity the manufacturer is perfectly aware, and scruples not to avail himself to the utmost, by vending a debased manufacture, made up of the advances he has received from the treasure of the factory."

The following observations on this staple article of the Company's imports are too important to be altogether overlooked.

In a letter from the Governor-General, Marquis Wellesley, addressed to the Secret Committee, dated the 9th of April, 1801, in which his Lordship states the necessity for curtailing the amount of the investment for the ensuing season (1801–2), his Lordship observes that, "in order to guard against the evils which might attend a sudden and considerable reduction of the Indian investment, the advances for which issued throughout the country, furnish ultimately a resource for the payment of the land revenues, and by withholding of which, difficulties might occur in realizing the revenues, it had been found necessary to afford the public an assurance that the arrangement adopted in the last year by the Order in Council of the 19th of September, 1800, for allowing the export of goods to England on private ships, would be continued in the ensuing season."

Of the propriety of admitting individuals to supply any deficiency that may arise in the provision of goods for the Europe market, when the Company are unable to afford the needful funds for that purpose, there can be no question. The Board of Controul, in a letter dated the 25th of March, 1802, suggests "that his Lordship be informed, in reply to his letter, that the Company perfectly agree in the sentiments contained in his letter, in regard to the evil consequences that are likely to ensue, when the Company's investment is much curtailed, if the public were not allowed to fill the chasm. The class of manufacturers, as therein remarked, is entitled to the constant protection and encouragement of the State: otherwise that useful and valuable body of men might experience distress, the fabrics be debased, valuable branches of manufacture, now supported by the Company, wholly abandoned or materially injured, and the country suffer from the diminution of that supply of specie, which is now regularly afforded through the channel of the Company's advances.—We were glad to find that the Governor-General in Council had taken care to prevent the operation of those evils, or to alleviate their effects; and that, with this view, it was deemed necessary to afford every possible encouragement to the private merchant, in order that he might be enabled to supply the place of the Company in the market, and to furnish that support to the manufacturers which could not proceed from the Company's funds."

The Court concurred in the propriety of the reasonings here stated, as far as they regarded the permission for individuals to make a provision of piece-goods. They constituted, in their opinion, the only true and substantial ground upon which any portion of this valuable branch of the Company's commerce ought ever to have been conceded; and it would have afforded them the most solid grounds of satisfaction, if the result had shewn that the practice of the free merchants had been regulated in conformity with these principles; but so far from this being the case, it appears that, instead of affording relief to the manufac-

turers in the various factories and aurungs subordinate to the Company's more immediate government; instead of making up the deficiencies in the usual and well-known fabrics of which the Company's investments have long been composed, and which were about to be curtailed: " instead of filling up that chasm which the temporary embarrassments of the Company had created, and thereby supplying the place of the Company in the market; instead of making use of their funds in the way that was likely to relieve the weavers from distress, to preserve those valuable branches of manufacture, which were supported by the Company, from being wholly abandoned or materially injured, and to prevent the country from suffering by the diminution of that supply of specie which was regularly afforded through the channel of the Company's advances;" instead of forming engagements that would have been creditable and profitable to themselves, as well as beneficial to that Government by whom they were supported and protected; they wildly and improvidently, without concert, plan, or system, dispatched agents into the Upper Provinces, with unbounded commissions to provide immense quantities of goods, the lowest description of quality, or, as they have been well described, goods of " a slight and flimsy texture, in which their object was principally to obtain as many covids of cloth for as little money as possible, without the least regard whatever to fabric;" and so eager was their competition against each other, that they paid in the ceded and reserved territories, larger prices for these debased commodities, than could be obtained for them in the Calcutta market. It is with goods of this description that London, America, and the markets throughout the whole of foreign Europe have been glutted; a striking instance of which appears in the quantity of these low assortments from Bengal, belonging to individuals, now lying in the Company's warehouses, which are nearly 700,000 pieces, many of which, as has been already observed, would have been out of time for exportation, if the Lords of Trade had not repeatedly, at the solicitation of the holders, been pleased to extend the restricted term of three years to a further period.

The following is an account of the value of piece-goods exported from Bengal on account of the Company, in the years 1795-6 to 1800-1 inclusive:

1795-6	Sicca Rupees 60,00,000	1798-9	Sicca Rupees 30,00,000
1796-7	27,00,000	1799-1800	47,00,000
1797-8	85,00,000	1800-1	43,00,000

being on an average, 48,66,666 Sicca rupees, which, at 2s. 6d. each, is £608,358 per annum.

The following is a statement of the value of piece-goods exported by individuals from Bengal in the years 1795-6 to 1804-5 inclusive, distinguishing the principal places to which they were exported:

Years.	Total Exports from Bengal.	London.	Hamburgh.	Copenhagen.	Lisbon.	America.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1795-6	94,83,284	14,91,416	13,57,336	7,00,542	21,76,347	17,47,486
1796-7	73,26,752	12,94,232	4,35,746	13,69,242	7,08,926	20,77,886
1797-8	57,48,617	11,87,710	99,686	2,64,920	12,45,709	14,38,667
1798-9	57,74,057	8,85,058	3,30,138	26,412	4,31,913	8,39,459
1799-0	120,01,199	15,23,479	20,305	7,15,116	32,83,185	28,44,333
1800-1	141,67,106	30,97,165	——	4,71,003	20,07,638	52,36,964
1801-2	165,91,309	66,68,290	——	2,772	16,36,823	41,52,244
1802-3	185,94,676	64,70,203	——	2,54,769	24,33,092	40,21,942
1803-4	161,09,478	48,72,016	——	5,04,419	24,55,918	54,50,835
1804-5	110,85,509	12,28,637	——	12,36,964	24,53,029	24,89,509
Total	1170,41,897	287,18,196	22,43,211	55,46,099	188,32,580	302,89,815
Average	117,04,190	28,71,819	2,24,321	5,546,10	18,83,258	30,28,981

The remainder are exported to various parts of India, China, &c. The following are the places to which the exports of 1799–1800 were shipped, exclusive of those enumerated above:

Cape of Good Hope	Sicca Rupees 27,857	Coast of Coromandel	Sicca Rupees 6,39,418
Manilla	5,13,235	New South Wales	35,556
Bussorah and Muscat	1,22,735	Pegu	1,21,215
Mocha and Judda	1,44,522	Pinang and Eastern Islands	7,03,341
Coast of Sumatra	1,29,090	China	10,044
Coast of Malabar	11,64,836	Maldive Islands	2,932

From the foregoing statement of the official value of the piece-goods exported from Bengal to London by individuals in ten years, 1795–6 to 1804–5 inclusive, and the account of the sale of privilege Bengal piece-goods in London in ten years, 1797 to 1806 inclusive, some idea may be formed how far the trade has been advantageous to the individuals who embarked in it.

Value of piece-goods exported from Bengal in the above years, Sicca Rupees 287,18,196, which, at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is.....£3,589,774 10s.

Sale amount of Bengal piece-goods in ten years, 1797 to 1806 inclusive 3,786,533 0s.

The sales exceed the official value at Calcutta..... £196,758 10s.

out of which is to be paid freight, which, on an average, was £21,681 per annum, making £216,810; also the premiums of insurance, which were seldom under 6 per cent.; the agent's commission in London of 2½ per cent.; the Company's charges for landing, warehousing, &c. 3 per cent.; and fees of office ¼ per cent.; forming in all 12 per cent., which on £3,589,774, is £430,772; this with the freight, £216,810, amounts to £647,582; from which deducting the amount in which the sales exceed the Bengal value, leaves £450,824; a loss of about 12½ per cent. on the original cost, exclusive of interest of money from the period of purchasing in India, to the realizing the proceeds of the sales in England, and which may be considered at least twelve months.

RISE AND PROGRESS
OF THE
COMMERCE IN PIECE-GOODS FROM THE EAST INDIES.

The articles imported into England under the denomination of piece-goods, are calicoes and muslins of every description. They are manufactured in various parts of India, more particularly in Bengal and the adjacent provinces, of singular beauty and endless variety, and have from time immemorial formed the grand staple commodity of India. They were in great estimation amongst the ancients; and from the commencement of the trade between Europe and India by the way of the Cape of Good Hope, formed a material part of the imports from that country: but of late years, from the rise and excellence of similar manufactures in Europe, more particularly in Great Britain, and from the general impoverishment which wars and revolutions have brought upon the Continent of Europe, the consumption of the fine fabrics of India has greatly decreased, and it is not probable that it will ever be restored to its former standard.

At the time of Alexander's invasion of India, upwards of 2,000 years ago, the dress of the natives is described as being chiefly calico, pure white, or adorned with figures. A. D. 73, Pliny seemed so well informed of the trade and manufactures of India, that he remarks the superior excellence of the Bengal muslins; and, in enumerating the imports from Egypt and Arabia at that period, he mentions "muslins and Indian calicoes, and other cotton goods of a variety of kinds."

Calicoes formed a very considerable part of the Portuguese imports into Europe in the early period of their trade. Among the numerous articles of which the cargo of the Carrack, taken by the English in 1592, consisted, were "book calicoes, calico lawns, broad white calicoes, fine starched calicoes, coarse white calicoes, and brown broad calicoes; there were also canopies and coarse diaper towels, quilts, and calico carpets, like those of Turkey." Soon after the English began to trade to India, and piece-goods formed a part of their cargoes homeward in 1615, it appears, from Sir Dudley Digges's pamphlet, that large quantities of calicoes were exported from England to foreign parts; and, in 1628, Mr. Munn estimates the annual importation of calicoes to be 50,000 pieces; that they cost on an average 7s. per piece in India, and sold in London at 20s. per piece; he also mentions that, in his time, the Turks sent £600,000 a year from Mocha for calicoes, drugs, sugar, rice, &c. The East India Company, in 1625, in answer to some objections which were started against the India trade, say that, instead of paying £300,000 annually to Holland and France for linens, lawns, and cambrics, half the consumption of those articles is now superseded by the use of India calicoes, and foreigners now pay us money for the cloths they formerly received in payment for those goods.

In 1631, in a proclamation for restraining the encroachments of the private traders upon the Company, we find painted calicoes among the articles permitted to be imported by the officers of their ships. In 1655, the Protector having laid the trade open, the competition in India advanced the price of all commodities there; and, in a treatise entitled "Britannia Languens," it is stated "that during the years 1653 to 1656, when the East India trade was laid open, they afforded the India commodities so cheap, that they supplied more parts of Europe, and even Amsterdam itself therewith, than ever they did after." So large was the stock of piece-goods of inferior qualities in England, that, on the renewal of the Company's Charter in 1657, they sent orders to India to remit only one quarter of the quantity usually shipped, and stated there was sufficient of that sort of goods for the consumption of several years.

1670. Sir Josiah Child, in speaking of the benefits and advantages accruing to England from its East India trade, says, that it supplies the kingdom, for its consumption, with pepper, calicoes, and useful drugs, to the value of £150,000 per annum; that it supplies materials for carrying on the trade with Turkey, viz. pepper, cowries, calicoes, and painted stuffs. In 1677 the annual importation of calicoes was £160,000; and in 1680 Mr. Pollexfen asserted that "we at that time consumed to the value of £300,000 yearly, in those East India manufactured goods, including printed and painted calicoes for clothes, beds, hangings, &c."

The period of the first introduction of the cotton manufacture into Great Britain is not clearly ascertained, and there are few authentic documents of earlier date than the middle of the seventeenth century, before which period it is probable that the manufacture of cotton was too inconsiderable to deserve much notice.

Cotton wool was imported into England long before we have any mention of any goods being manufactured; for Hackluyt, in 1430, mentions it being brought by the Genoese. From this early importation of the raw material, and acquainted as the English must have been, in some degree, with the cotton cloths of the East and other countries, and furnished with the material for their fabrication, no doubt some attempts were made to imitate them, though it does not appear that the manufacture had made any progress till the beginning of the seventeenth century. In 1621, in one of the sumptuary laws of Scotland, it is enacted, "that servants shall have no silk on their clothes, except buttons and garters; and shall wear only cloth, fustians, and canvas, of Scotch manufacture." This prohibition seems to imply a very advanced state of the manufacture of these articles in Scotland.

The first authentic document concerning the cotton manufacture is contained in a work entitled "Treasure of Traffic," published in 1641. It states "that Manchester buys cotton-wool in London, that

comes from Cyprus and Smyrna, and works the same into fustians, vermilions, and dimities, which they return to London, where they are sold."

1675. About this time the fashion of wearing India muslin had become pretty general, and they in a great measure supplanted the French cambrics, lawns, and other flaxen fabrics of Flanders and Germany. The trade carried on with India gave rise, about the same time, to the printing India calicoes in England, in imitation of the painted chintz of India. This branch of trade soon rose to such a height as to render, in a great degree, unnecessary the importation of those goods from India. The Company, with a view of encouraging it, reduced their importation of piece-goods. In consequence of which resolution, and the loss of three homeward-bound ships in 1690, there was so great a deficiency of calicoes, that complaints were made that the Company did not import a sufficient quantity for the use of the country.

1699. The English, aided by the example and exertions of the numerous refugees which came from France, on the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, in 1685, had made so much progress in the manufactures of cotton and silk, as to supersede the necessity of India goods of similar kinds. It unfortunately happened that at this period the Company's Charter had become forfeited, and that great numbers of persons had embarked in the India trade, the consequence of which was a depreciation of all kinds of European goods abroad, and an enhancement of the prices of India goods at home. The prodigious glut and unreasonable cheapness of India goods were ruinous not only to the importers, but to the English manufacturers, whose goods were rejected for the wrought silks, mixed stuffs, and figured calicoes of India, Persia, and China. In 1700 the legislature, with a view of relieving the general distress, passed an Act for the encouragement of the manufactures, which enacted "that from and after the 29th day of September, 1701, all wrought silks, Bengals, and stuffs mixed with silk or herba, of the manufacture of Persia, China, or the East Indies; and all calicoes, painted, dyed, printed, or stained there, which are or shall be imported into this kingdom, shall not be worn or otherwise used in Great Britain; and all goods imported after that day, shall be warehoused, and exported again." An Act was also passed, declaring "that by muslins the several species following are meant, *viz.* awbroaks, abdaties, betellees plain, striped pandavarts, rowallew, golconda, oringall, junays; and, also, doreas, cossacs, plain and flowered tanjebs, plain and flowered jamdammes, mullmulls, plain and flowered jecolsies, mamolwhiates, plain and flowered neckcloths, rehing, salloes, comervilles, seerbands, nightrails, aprons, tirindames, calico lawns, and all other thin calicoes, commonly called muslins; and that by painted, dyed, and stained calicoes are meant not only all calicoes painted, dyed, or stained, after the weaving thereof, but all such whereof the yarn or other materials were painted, dyed, or stained before the making of such calicoes."

1721. Notwithstanding the law which prohibited the use of printed India calicoes in Great Britain, they had become so universal as to be a great detriment and obstruction to the home manufactures. This had occasioned several tumults of weavers, and it was found necessary to redress the grievance. An Act was therefore passed, which states in the preamble—"Whereas it is most evident that the wearing and using of printed, painted, stained, and dyed calicoes in apparel, household stuff, furniture, and otherwise, does manifestly tend to the great detriment of the woollen and silk manufactures of the kingdom;" and enacts that no person shall wear any calicoes of the above description, under the penalty of £5. No mercer, draper, &c. shall sell, utter, or expose to sale, any printed, painted, dyed, or stained calico, or any bed, cushion, window-curtain, &c. made of it, unless for exportation, under the penalty of £20. No such calico to be used in any bed, chair, &c. under the penalty of £20. The like penalty for wearing or using in apparel or household stuff, any stuff made of, or mixed with, cotton printed, painted, dyed, or stained, except muslins, &c. but not to extend to calicoes dyed all blue.

1750. Though the legislature was anxious to encourage the cotton manufactures, and had passed several laws prohibiting the use of such foreign goods as interfered with them; yet it does not appear that

they had made much progress. At this period the goods manufactured were strong and coarse compared with those of the present day; and little or no thread finer than from sixteen to twenty hanks in the pound, each hank measuring 840 yards, was then spun; and one person could with difficulty produce a pound of thread, by close and diligent application, the whole day. The goods were subject to great inequalities. As the demand for cotton goods increased, various contrivances were thought of for expediting this part of the manufacture; but without producing any very material or lasting advantage till about 1767, when a weaver, of the name of Hargrave, constructed a machine, called a jenny, by which one person can spin 100 hanks in a day, each hank 840 yards. In the following year Arkwright brought forward a new mode of spinning. Other improvements were made by different mechanics and manufacturers, which led to the present great extent and unexampled prosperity of the cotton manufactures of Great Britain. At this period it was stated that the whole cotton trade of Great Britain did not return £200,000 to the country for the raw material, combined with the labour of the people.

1772. Various attempts had been made previous to this period to manufacture calicoes, but without success. The improvements that rapidly followed the introduction of machine spinning, soon remedied the former defects; and in 1773 some attempts, made at Derby by Sir Richard Arkwright and his partners, proved successful; yet, after a large quantity was made, it was discovered they were subject to double the duty, viz. 6d. per yard on cottons manufactured in the old way, with linen warp; and when printed, were prohibited. The manufacturers therefore asked relief of the legislature, which, after great opposition, they at length obtained, and thus laid the foundation of a branch of manufacture which has since become one of the most important in the kingdom.

The manufacture of calicoes was begun in Lancashire also about the same period. The goods made here, before the introduction of calicoes, were of cotton woof, but linen warp of Hamburgh, or Irish yarn, but chiefly of the latter. These goods, which were the calicoes of that day, were manufactured as early as 1727, at which time all the cotton goods were made in the same way.

1781. To the same improvements in spinning which gave birth to the manufacture of calicoes, the country is indebted for that of muslin. For this elegant article of dress all Europe were long tributary to India, where the manufacture has, through the long lapse of ages, arrived at the greatest perfection. The manufacture of muslins was attempted at Paisley as early as 1700; a few looms were employed, but this trade was soon annihilated by the introduction of the goods of India. Eighty years afterwards a more successful rivalship commenced: British muslins were first successfully introduced in 1781, but were carried to no great extent till 1785, since which their progress has been rapid beyond all example. In 1787 it was computed that not less than 500,000 pieces of muslins, including shawls and handkerchiefs, were annually made in Great Britain.

1787. In this year was published a pamphlet entitled "An important Crisis in the Calico and Muslin Manufactures of this Country explained;" the purport of which was to warn the nation of the bad consequences which would result from the rivalry of the East India cotton goods, which it is stated was then begun to be poured into the market in increased quantities, and at diminished prices; it also gives an account of the effects immediately resulting from the various improvements in the cotton manufacture.

The number of cotton-mills, as near as intelligence could be procured, was 143, the cost of which, with jennies and machinery, is stated to have been at least £1,000,000; that the number of persons employed in all the various branches of the cotton manufacture was 350,000; that the consumption of cotton, which in 1781 was 6,000,000lbs. was now 22,600,000 lbs.; and the supposed value of the goods, when manufactured, was £7,500,000.

The manufacturers having embarked large sums, and made larger quantities of goods than a vent could be found for, and the East India Company's imports of piece-goods being considerably increased,

the manufacturers presented a memorial to the Privy Council, charging the Company with having purposely augmented the quantity of their goods, and lowered their prices, in order to ruin them, and destroy British industry; and among other plans of relieving their distress, were desirous of excluding the Company from importing any white cotton goods.

The East India Company presented a memorial to the Lords of the Treasury, in reply to that of the manufacturers, in which they stated, "that of the goods imported into England, $\frac{4}{5}$ths of the coarser sorts of goods, known by the name of calicoes, and three-fifths of the goods under the denomination of muslins, are sold for exportation, as well as all coloured goods manufactured in India;—that by restricting the Company from importing them, no real benefit would result to the British manufacturer, for as the Company decreased, other nations would increase in their importation of the cotton goods of Bengal and the Coast into Europe; while the selling prices necessary to keep the British manufacturer employed, would so much exceed the prices the Indian goods could be supplied at, that the prohibitions laid upon the Company would only give encouragement to the illicit trade to supply the home consumption, and leave to other maritime States to furnish the Continent with those large foreign orders for calicoes and muslins, hitherto supplied from the Company's sales;—that the white cotton piece-goods, under the denomination of muslins and calicoes, annually sold by the Company, the greatest part of which are furnished for foreign markets, do in this country fetch 127 per cent. on the invoice cost. Several of these goods are printed or stained in this country, before exported; in case the British manufacturers of cotton goods under the above denomination, cannot meet the Indian manufactures at a price considerably below the profit here stated, though the Company should be annihilated, foreign importers of these goods into Europe will find means to convey them into Great Britain. Stained or printed goods seem to furnish a wide field for the ingenuity and industry of the British manufacturers, as the Company cannot import any goods under those descriptions for home consumption. The fabrics are various and extensive, and consist of many degrees between the coarsest and finest, and large quantities of them would be worn in this country, if not prohibited. These goods are imported by the Company at a considerable disadvantage, and done merely to assist the wants of the African and West India traders. If the manufacturers cannot meet a competition in the market on these prohibited goods, there is little chance of their doing it on those which produce so much larger profit; and however they may bear down the Company, they will find it too arduous a task to shut out the foreign importers of Indian goods, unless they fairly meet the competition in the markets of Europe; for high duties will only operate to invite the smuggler, at the same time that those cotton goods made at home will become a shelter to ensure him success."

1793. The circumstance which gave birth to the clamour against the Indian manufactures in 1788, was not occasioned by any unusual exertions on the part of the Company, any unusual quantity of Indian goods exposed to sale, or any disposition on the part of the public to prefer the manufactures of India to those of Great Britain; but solely the distress in which many individuals were involved, in consequence of their having pushed their enterprises beyond due bounds, by raising fictitious credits and circulations to an unprecedented extent, and which occasioned the ruin of numbers. The manufacturers conceived that if the Company could be prevented from importing, they should be able to dispose of their surplus stocks; but it has been found that the extent of those circulations, and the consequent failures, exceeded the total amount of the Company's annual sale of Indian goods, therefore effectual relief could not thereby have been obtained; and it is remarkable that although the Company's importations and sales continued without variation, yet a few months after those pernicious circulations were put a stop to, the cotton manufactures at home flourished as usual, and in the two following years made very rapid and extraordinary progress in their increase; which proves that the Company's sales have not been prejudicial to the improvement and extension of the manufactures of Great Britain.

The following is an account of the quantities of each kind of piece-goods imported from India, and sold at the Company's sales, in the years 1771 to 1792 inclusive.

Years.	Bengal Piece-Goods.		Madras Piece-goods.		Surat Piece-goods.		Total.	
	Pieces.	Sale value.	Pieces.	Sale value.	Pieces.	Sale value.	Pieces.	Sale value.
1771	604,757	1,073,841	114,710	261,893	131,198	91,300	850,665	1,427,034
1772	626,160	1,035,686	273,766	523,094	147,029	87,176	1,046,955	1,645,956
1773	761,489	1,224,467	134,789	505,533	58,138	65,231	954,416	1,795,231
1774	616,226	1,105,230	207,086	644,563	38,366	54,798	861,678	1,804,591
1775	517,761	960,244	181,950	583,765	47,405	62,355	747,116	1,606,364
1776	607,878	1,090,744	209,538	515,557	18,822	13,308	836,238	1,619,609
1777	655,332	1,114,734	224,183	492,926	83,024	48,468	962,539	1,656,128
1778	805,010	1,194,613	296,182	422,213	61,285	32,207	1,162,477	1,649,033
1779	338,465	524,636	74,676	203,186	31,525	13,230	444,666	741,052
1780	474,703	984,763	107,130	257,626	18,605	11,349	600,438	1,253,738
1781	301,617	582,116	95,868	233,643	33,144	23,129	430,629	838,888
1782	446,488	1,033,557	72,188	204,163	36,597	29,403	555,273	1,267,123
1783	437,802	1,049,224	——	——	82,966	79,944	520,768	1,129,168
1784	516,088	908,370	44,810	116,883	31,130	22,607	592,028	1,047,860
1785	768,228	1,426,232	45,332	115,632	26,767	18,963	840,347	1,560,847
1786	764,173	1,458,416	43,340	97,511	——	——	807,413	1,555,927
1787	745,449	1,317,934	38,641	84,598	41,882	28,560	825,972	1,431,092
1788	594,728	978,507	96,455	191,826	41,806	29,937	732,989	1,200,270
1789	614,839	943,096	112,216	225,169	44,715	33,357	771,770	1,201,622
1790	866,282	1,485,080	126,221	253,625	33,131	9,639	1,025,634	1,748,344
1791	709,540	1,131,717	144,996	475,590	57,080	44,380	911,616	1,651,687
1792	607,329	1,194,873	240,108	577,400	25,910	21,060	873,347	1,793,325
Total.	13,380,344	23,818,102	2,884,105	6,986,396	1,090,525	820,391	17,354,974	31,624,889

The quantities of piece-goods which were taken from India by foreign nations previous to the war, it is difficult to ascertain correctly. The French imported largely, as will appear from the following account of a sale which took place at L'Orient in 1791.

Surat and Bombay goods	£45,678	Prohibited coast goods	£101,266
China	76,430	Bengal calicoes	143,748
White coast calicoes	485,137	Ditto prohibited	13,014
Coast muslins	44,261	Ditto muslins	318,343

in the whole 717,042 pieces, the sale amount of which was £1,227,887, nearly equal to that of England.

The trade of the Dutch in the article of piece-goods was comparatively small, as will appear from the following account of their imports into Holland in the seven years, 1785 to 1791 inclusive.

	Sale value.		Sale value.
1785	£100,920	1789	£46,795
1786	198,134	1790	118,900
1787	159,464	1791	15,370
1788	127,510	Average per annum	109,570

If to these sums be added the value of what was imported into the Continent by the numerous ships which visited India in 1787-8-9, under Ostend, Hamburgh, Genoese, and other colours, the British manufacturers must be convinced that, in the event of peace, every attempt to check the importation of Indian muslins and calicoes upon the Continent will be ineffectual.

Since the year 1793, Great Britain has been almost constantly in a state of warfare: in consequence of which, and the rapid increase of the British manufactures, the trade in piece-goods has suffered materially, more particularly in the latter years, as will appear from the following statement of piece-goods imported on account of the East India Company and individuals, from the renewal of the Charter in 1793–4 to 1809–10 inclusive.

Years.	COMPANY'S GOODS.		Privilege and Private Trade Goods.	Neutral and Prize Goods.	Total.
	Bengal.	Coast and Surat.			
	£	£	£	£	£
1793–4	1,216,801	399,825	180,729	——	1,797,355
1794–5	1,249,704	572,029	460,264	——	2,281,997
1795–6	1,333,599	715,777	261,863	37,860	2,369,099
1796–7	1,323,594	1,031,109	365,020	56,959	2,776,682
1797–8	651,926	459,548	197,602	——	1,309,076
1798–9	1,228,308	1,773,577	243,837	23	3,245,745
1799–0	1,056,840	871,097	340,567	4,888	2,273,392
1800–1	1,406,879	1,169,155	285,813	——	2,861,847
1801–2	1,131,531	817,955	431,788	——	2,381,274
1802–3	664,317	700,477	1,070,242	——	2,435,036
1803–4	672,079	516,928	1,060,612	4,643	2,254,262
1804–5	444,114	464,411	853,904	——	1,762,429
1805–6	621,562	614,317	772,517	——	2,008,696
1806–7	498,233	278,977	201,107	——	978,317
1807–8	260,307	172,574	111,543	——	544,424
1808–9	376,516	353,121	65,533	4,477	799,647
1809–10	333,768	769,870	77,564	71	1,181,273
Total.	14,490,378	11,680,747	6,980,505	108,921	33,260,551

From the foregoing statements it appears that the sale value of piece-goods imported by the Company and individuals from the British settlements in India, from the year 1771 to 1810–11, was as follows:

In 22 years, 1771 to 1792 inclusive	£31,624,889
In 17 years, 1793–4 to 1809–10 inclusive	33,260,551
In the year 1810–11, the amount sales were	1,064,370
Forming a total in 40 years of	£65,949,810

The following is the official or rated value of East India piece-goods exported from Great Britain.

	Calicoes.	Muslins.	Prohibited.	Total.
1797	£1,566,613	638,589	687,922	2,893,124
1798	1,299,981	406,475	703,057	2,409,531
1799	1,033,379	342,866	662,128	2,038,373
1800	1,339,622	579,501	708,653	2,627,776
1801	978,231	579,323	787,313	2,344,867
1802	1,541,640	425,177	654,823	2,621,646
1803	1,483,264	276,729	487,703	2,247,696

forming a total in seven years of 17,183,013, exceeding the amount of the sales of East India goods during the seven years, 1797–8 to 1803–4 inclusive, in the sum of £428,381, which may have been part of the stock which had accumulated in the warehouses in the two or three years immediately after the breaking out of the war.

The British cotton manufactures have rapidly increased since the commencement of the war, as will appear from the following statement of cotton goods exported in the years 1797 to 1810 inclusive, consisting of printed goods, hosiery, cotton yarn, &c.

1797	£2,569,941	1802	£7,910,306	1807	£10,851,045
1798	3,775,962	1803	7,378,879	1808	12,839,624
1799	6,058,552	1804	8,561,224	1809	18,634,614
1800	6,032,652	1805	9,857,110	1810	18,033,792
1801	7,160,463	1806	10,750,724		

The cotton imported from 1797 to 1802 is enumerated in Vol. i, page 284. The following is an account of what has been imported in the six years, 1805 to 1810 inclusive.

1805	lbs. 59,682,406	1808	lbs. 43,605,982
1806	58,176,283	1809	92,812,282
1807	74,925,306	1810	136,570,103

from which it will appear that the progress of the British manufactures has kept pace with the importation of the raw material.

What has been consumed at home it is impossible to ascertain. The lightness as well as cheapness of the British calicoes and muslins have rendered them the chief article of dress amongst all classes of people, and annihilated the manufacture of many of the lighter kinds of woollens and worsted stuffs, formerly so much in use. The demand for, and the use of these articles are proportionate to their cheapness and elegance, and it is not difficult to see that the cotton manufactures will become a staple of the country. India, however, maintains her superiority in the finer kinds of muslins, some of which are of most exquisite beauty and fineness. The common kinds, or such as are more adapted to general use, are also preferred by the English ladies to those of home manufacture, on the score of enduring great hardships, and retaining their whiteness better, and in respect to the coloured, or prohibited goods, for the foreign markets, they will always retain their superiority. In the article of Guinea stuffs manufactured at Surat, and in request on the Coast of Africa, many attempts have been made to imitate them, more particularly by the French, but in vain. The Moors discover merely by the touch whether they have been manufactured in Europe or India; nor is it even to their feel and colour which they chiefly trust—they ascertain by their smell, as the indigo with which they are dyed, gives them a peculiar smell which cannot be imitated.

RICE

Is the principal article of food amongst the Eastern nations, and of an extensive trade from Bengal to other parts of India, and sometimes to China. The kinds of rice are very numerous. It is called paddy in its native state; each grain is fastened to a short stalk, joining to a main stem, and furnishing a bunch of grain, somewhat resembling an ear of oats, and sometimes containing from 150 to 300 grains of rice. There are two methods of clearing it from the husk; one by scalding, which occasions the rice to swell and burst its shell; the other by pounding in a mortar, and afterwards winnowing it. The export trade is principally in what is denominated cargo rice, of a coarse reddish cast, but peculiarly sweet and large grained; it does not readily separate from the husk, but is preferred by the natives to all others. Some kinds of rice, more particularly the Patna rice, is of a very superior sort, small grained, rather long and wiry, but remarkably white, and is the kind most esteemed by Europeans.

20 cwt. of rice are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is 4s. 9d. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty 1s. 7d. per cwt. unless authorized to be imported duty free, by an order in Council.

The amount of grain exported from the three Presidencies in 1805, principally rice, was

Bengal	Sicca Rupees	24,60,716
Fort Saint George and its dependencies		38,11,500
Bombay and Surat		13,15,401

England is supplied with rice from America. Mr. Dalrymple states that it is the result of a small bag of paddy, given as a present from Mr. Dubois, Treasurer of the East India Company, to a Carolina trader.

ROSES, OIL OF.

This valuable perfume is prepared in India, Persia, and Turkey. The quantity to be obtained from roses being very precarious and uncertain, various ways have been thought of to augment the quantity at the expence of the quality. It is often adulterated with the oil of sandal-wood: this imposition, however, cannot be concealed; the essential oil of sandal will not congeal in common cold, and its smell cannot be kept under, but will predominate in spite of every art. They have likewise the art of mixing this oil with spermaceti, more particularly that imported from Turkey. The best mode of discovering this fraud, is by spirits of wine: this will dissolve the oil, and leave the spermaceti in lumps, which, if heated, will form one solid mass. In the genuine oil, when congealed, the crystals will be found short and uniform, not more in one part than another; for if they are of different lengths, the oil may be considered as adulterated. It is said that the colour of the attar is no criterion of its goodness, it being sometimes of a fine emerald green, of a bright yellow, and of a reddish hue, from the same ground, and from the same process, only from roses obtained on different days. The real oil, or attar, congeals with a slight cold; it floats in water, and dissolves in highly rectified spirits of wine. It is seldom imported from India for sale, but considerable quantities are brought from Turkey, the price of which varies from £3 to £4 per ounce.

The permanent duty on this oil is £51 5s. per cent. and the temporary or war duty £17 1s. 8d. making in the whole £68 6s. 8d. per cent.

RUM.

Large quantities of this spirit are manufactured at Bengal, some of which, when it has attained a proper age, is not inferior to the Jamaica rum, and it has this advantage—it is made of better materials. When new, it costs from ten annas to one rupee per gallon; as it increases in age, the prices advances in proportion. That rum which is of a brownish transparent colour, of a smooth, oily, grateful taste, of a strong body, and a good consistence, is best; that which is of a clear limped colour, and hot pungent taste, is new, and should be rejected. It is stated that 10,000,000 gallons of spirits, rum, arrack, &c. are annually manufactured in Bengal. In 1805 the quantity exported was valued at 1,38,153 Sicca Rupees.

The following is an account of the average quantity of rum imported into Great Britain from the West India Colonies in the under-mentioned periods, the average quantity exported, and what was retained for home consumption.

	Imported.	Exported.	Retained.
Five years....1781 to 1785 inclusive....	2,136,567 gallons....	766,471 gallons....	1,370,096 gallons.
Ditto.....1791 to 1795 ditto.....	2,804,103 ditto	616,822 ditto.....	2,187,281 ditto.
Six ditto.....1801 to 1806 ditto.....	3,928,593 ditto....	1,050,509 ditto.....	2,778,084 ditto.

In 1803 the quantity exported from the British West Indies was 8,781,496 gallons, of which 4,198,154 gallons was to the United States of America, 792,474 gallons to the British Continental Colonies, and the remainder to Great Britain.

The average net produce of the duties on rum, in the years 1805-6-7, amounted to £1,151,099.

SAFFLOWER

Is the flower of an annual plant, growing in Bengal, and other parts of India, which, when well-cured, is not easily distinguished from saffron by the eye, though it has nothing of its smell or taste. Safflower should be chosen in flakes of a bright pink colour, and of a smell somewhat resembling tobacco; it gives a deep saffron tincture to rectified spirits of wine, and to water a paler yellow. That which is in powder, dark coloured, or oily, should be rejected.

The following are the quantities of safflower imported, and sold at the East India sales, in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive, with the sale amount, and average price per cwt.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.		Aver. per Cwt.		
	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	£	s.	d.
1804	163	1112	84	348	247	1460	5	18	5
1805	268	1628	451	2412	719	4040	5	12	4
1806	399	1550	—	—	399	1550	3	17	9
1807	724	2062	676	2720	1400	4782	3	8	3
1808	1057	4359	13	173	1070	4532	4	4	8

14 cwt. of safflower are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is 5s. 6d. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty 1s. 10d. making in the whole 7s. 4d. per cwt.

SALTPETRE.

Or Nitre, is an artificial salt prepared in various parts of India, more particularly in the province of Bahar, likewise in Persia, China, and in the southern parts of Europe. We have had no account of the manner in which it is prepared in the East Indies, no person on the spot having taken particular notice of the manufacture. The general account is, that it is obtained from the soil of certain districts, which are called saltpetre grounds, where the soil is very cold, barren, and unhealthy. The salt is there ready formed by nature. It is only necessary to gather large quantities of the earth, and to put it into a cavity, through which a great quantity of water is poured, which dissolves and brings away the salt which it contains. The brine is evaporated by boiling, and when cold, affords nitre by crystallization. The salt thus obtained, is again dissolved, boiled, and scummed; and when it is cooled, after sufficient evaporation, the brine yields the saltpetre of commerce.

Saltpetre is of very extensive use in different arts; it forms the main ingredient in the manufacture of gunpowder; and serves as an excellent flux to other matters, whence its use in glass-making. It is also possessed of a considerable antiseptic power, whence its use in preserving meat, to which it communicates a red colour. The best saltpetre is well refined, in long, neat, and transparent crystals, cooling the tongue when applied to it, and flaming much when thrown upon burning coals.

This article, though a considerable branch of the Company's Indian investments, is imported under special restrictions and regulations, the nature and tendency of which are calculated to prevent its becoming a beneficial article of commerce. As a commodity, that contributes essentially to the national defence, it has at all times claimed a large share of the attention of Government, and for more than a century past, the Company have been under an immediate obligation to import and supply the Board of Ordnance with 500 tons annually for His Majesty's service, at given rates of prices in time of peace and war. The principal expenditure of the commodity is in the manufacture of gunpowder. The demand consequently is in a great degree regulated by the course of political events, upon which it is impossible to speculate. Hence,

in a commercial point of view, the extent of the required import can never be ascertained upon any fixed mercantile principle.

A retrospective view of the state of the trade in saltpetre for the last half century, nevertheless, affords sufficient reason for concluding that this article is not capable of being carried to an extent that individuals are likely to embark in, with any well-grounded prospect of advantage.

In 1755 the quantity of saltpetre offered for sale was 14,747 bags, the whole of which, under the prospect of a war with France, which took place early in 1756, was disposed of.

	Declared.	Sold.	Refused.
From 1756 to 1762, during the war, there were	99,657 bags	65,615 bags	34,062 bags.
On an average of each year	14,240	9,374	4,866
From 1763 to 1764, which was a period of peace, there were	399,264	271,439	127,825
On an average of each year	33,272	22,620	10,625
From 1775, when the disturbances with America commenced, (which eventually produced a war with France, Spain, and Holland), to the year 1783, there were	178,891	120,154	58,737
On an average of each year	22,301	15,019	7,342

During the greater part of this time, the putting up price was £4 per cwt. The offering of it in quantities beyond what the consumption required, had the effect of destroying all competition among the buyers, and it was almost uniformly disposed of at a single advance upon the putting up price.

Upon the restoration of peace in 1783, the Company, having a large stock of saltpetre on hand, were desirous of trying whether it could be vended in additional quantities, by offering it at reduced rates; and in the course of the ensuing eight years, it was lowered by degrees to £1 18s. per cwt. This in some degree produced the intended effect, as from 1783 to 1789, it appears

That the quantity declared was 308,400 bags, of which 226,247 were sold, and 82,153 refused.
On an average per annum..... 44,058 ditto..... 32,321 ..... 11,737 ditto.

It still, however, uniformly sold at a single advance upon the putting up price.

The average price per cwt. in the years 1780 to 1789, both years inclusive, was

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
1780	4	4	3 per cwt.	1785	3	2	0 per cwt.
1781	5	14	1 ditto.	1786	2	15	11 ditto.
1782	4	2	6 ditto.	1787	2	7	9 ditto.
1783	3	13	2 ditto.	1788	2	3	5 ditto.
1784	3	4	0 ditto.	1789	2	0	10 ditto.

The first three were years of war, and the remaining seven, years of peace.

In March sale, 1790, 30,000 bags were declared, of which only 22,367 were sold. Soon after which, upon the prospect of a rupture with Spain, Government made a sudden and unexpected demand upon the Company for 2,500 tons, or equal to 40,000 bags, being the annual supply for five years, which they had suffered to run in arrear. To meet this demand, the Company were under the necessity of reducing the quantity in the September sale, 1790, to 10,575 bags; which, as the article had advanced in price from the preceding sale, was put up at £2 5s. and so great was the competition for it, that the whole was disposed of at £2 11s. 6d. At the ensuing March sale of 1791, 15,948 bags were declared at £2 5s. of which 14,339 bags went off at £2 5s. 6d. being a single advance upon the putting-up price.

About this period, from the disturbances that prevailed upon the Continent, and the unsettled state of the Provinces of Holland, the manufacturers of this country were possessed of orders from abroad for considerable supplies of powder; and they wanted a larger quantity of petre than the Company, consistently with their duty to the State, could furnish. They accordingly applied for and obtained a licence from the Lords of the Privy Council, to import a quantity of petre from the Continent. They at the same time took occasion to represent to their Lordships, that the Company, by availing themselves of their monopoly, exacted prices for this raw material that were highly injurious to them as manufacturers. They also further observed, if the Company were required to furnish the commodity at prices equivalent to what it could be procured for upon the Continent, they should, by their superior powers in workmanship, be able to supplant the Dutch in the manufacture of gunpowder, and thereby draw to this country the whole of the continental demand. The plea, though fallacious, was too popular to be resisted; and in result an Act was passed, by which, from and after the 1st of September, 1791, the Company are required to put up at each of their half-yearly sales, such a quantity of saltpetre as shall be equal to 5,000 bags more than what shall appear to have been disposed of, upon an average of the four preceding sales, at a price of £1 11s. per cwt. or £31 per ton, in time of peace; or £2 per cwt. or £40 in time of war or hostility. The Company are also required by the same Act to supply 500 tons annually for His Majesty's service, at the like specified rates, and at the stipulated refraction of 5 instead of 15 per cent. as formerly; and it is further provided, if the Company shall fail in the performance of these conditions, His Majesty in Council shall be empowered to license the importation of saltpetre to such an extent from any place or country whatever.

It is true that since the passing of this Act, saltpetre has upon some occasions been disposed of in large quantities, and at other times at unprecedented high prices; but this has been altogether owing to contingent events and accidental causes, which, as has been before observed, are not applicable to any settled system.

In the September sale of 1791, the Company declared 16,060 bags at the price required by the Act, of 31s. per cwt.; but as the demand was great, it went off at the advanced price of £2 5s.

In March, 1792, 20,871 bags were declared, which, owing to the troubles on the Continent, were disposed off at £2 11s. 6d. per cwt.; and in the September sale of the same year, 22,000 bags sold at £3 8s. per cwt.

In the early part of the year 1793, from the critical state of affairs in France, the Lords of the Privy Council, as a measure of political expediency, judged it proper to require that the whole of the Company's stock of saltpetre then on hand, should be reserved for His Majesty's use. The manufacturers complained of the inconveniency they sustained by this embargo, and in a memorial to the Privy Council prayed that the trade in saltpetre might be altogether laid open. Their Lordships did not think it proper to comply with this request; but, willing to allow them every practicable relief, consented to allow that the Company should put up 3,000 bags at the March sale of 1793, to keep their works going, till the arrivals of the approaching season should take place. This quantity was so little proportioned to the existing demand, and excited so much competition, that it went off at £5 5s. 6d. per cwt. In the September sale of the same year, the Company were enabled to declare 22,100 bags at the war price of 40s. which had the effect of reducing the price to £2 6s.

In March sale, 1794, a further quantity of 21,971 bags was declared, which went off at £2 9s. 6d. In the month of July, 1794, when the Company, by their increased imports, had accumulated a quantity sufficient to keep their sales regularly supplied, their warehouses at Ratcliffe, and the whole of their stock of saltpetre contained therein, were unfortunately consumed by fire. At the September sale of the same year, 8,190 cwt. of saltpetre and rubbish, which had been dug from the ruins, were sold for £2 17s. 6d. per cwt.

At the same sale also 8,245 bags, which had been received after the accident, sold at an average of £6 9s. per cwt.

In the March and September sales of 1795, owing to the non-arrival of the shipping of the season, some small quantities of saltpetre, Dutch property, and in privilege, sold at various prices, from £4 13s. to £8 7s. per cwt.

In the ten years, from March sale, 1796, to September sale, 1805, inclusive, there have been sold belonging to the Company, and in privilege, 542,853 bags, at prices varying from £2 2s. to £6 17s. as the quantity offered was more or less suited to the exigency of the current demand.

RECAPITULATION.

Quantity sold the year before the war of 1756	Bags	14,747
Ditto on the average during the war, from 1756 to 1762 per annum		9,374
Ditto on the average during the peace, from 1763 to 1774		22,620
Ditto on the average during the war, from 1775 to 1782		15,019
Ditto on the average during the peace in 1783 to 1789, at reduced prices		32,324
Ditto in the year 1790		32,942
Quantity sold in the year 1791		30,399
Ditto 1792		42,881
Ditto, the embargo 1793		25,100
Ditto, the fire 1794		38,404
Ditto 1795		14,216
Ditto, in the years 1796 & 1805		542,853
	Bags	695,843
Average quantity sold in the fifteen years since the passing of the Act, per annum		46,256
Which, allowing for 1,000 tons imported from the Continent in 1791 and 1792, gives the medium at		47,323
The supply to Government, 500 tons a year, or		8,000
And the consumption will appear to have been, per annum	Bags	55,323

From the foregoing statement it will be seen that, under the most extraordinary demand that ever has occurred, or possibly ever will occur, the demand for saltpetre is fully met with an import of from 50 to 60,000 bags, which in point of tonnage, is equal to about 4,000 tons.

The quantity of saltpetre imported by individuals, in the tonnage allowed by the Act of 1793, and in such country ships as have loaded from India to England, amounted in the years 1797-8 to 1803-4 inclusive, to 5,345 tons, being on an average 764 tons per annum.

The Company, as has been already mentioned, are required by Act of Parliament, to reserve and deliver in to His Majesty 500 tons of saltpetre, at the average prices at which they shall have declared and put up saltpetre at their public sales during the current year. The Company delivered saltpetre according to the provisions of the Act, from 1793 to 1808, at the rate of 40s. per cwt. at which time they had delivered, in anticipation of the Government demand of 500 tons per annum, as far as the year 1811. In February 1808, an agreement was concluded with the Government for a supply of saltpetre to the extent of 6,000 tons, at the rate of £50 per ton; and in the year 1810, the Company agreed to supply the Board of Ordnance with the further quantity of 12,500 tons, at the rate of £65 per ton.

The Company made out a statement of the saltpetre so supplied to Government, by which it appears that in the years 1793–4 to 1809 inclusive,

The quantity supplied was 493,040 cwt. and the prime cost	£277,712
The duty paid thereon was	10,252
The freight thereon was	1,086,049
The charges thereon were	96,576
Forming a total of prime cost and charges of	1,470,589
The amount received from the Board of Ordnance for the same was	1,033,000
And the net loss thereon (deducting a profit in 1794–5) was	436,689

20 cwt. of saltpetre are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is 3d. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty 1d. making in the whole 4d. per cwt. which is paid by the Company.

SILK, RAW,

Is a very soft, fine, bright thread, the work of an insect called bombyx, or the silkworm, common in some parts of the East Indies, Persia, China, and in the southern parts of Europe.

The silkworm is a species of caterpillar, of which there are several varieties, and, like all others of the same class, undergoes a variety of changes. It is produced from a yellowish coloured egg, about the size of a small pinhead, which has been laid by a kind of greyish coloured moth. These eggs are hatched by putting them into the sun for a few days. When the animal is first protruded from the egg, it is a small active black worm; when it has attained its full growth, it is from 1¼ to 1½ inch long, and about half an inch in circumference, of a milky or pearl colour. The body is divided into seven rings, to each of which are joined two very short feet; it then begins forming the cocoon by winding the silk, which it draws from its bowels round itself into an oblong roundish ball. During this operation it gradually loses the appearance of a worm; its length is much contracted, and its thickness augmented. By the time the web is finished, it is found to be transformed into an oblong round ball, covered with a smooth shelly skin, and appears to be dead. In this state it remains for several days, entirely motionless in the heart of the cocoon; after which it bursts, like an egg hatching, and from that comes forth a heavy dull-looking moth with wings, but these wings it never uses for flying; it only crawls slowly about in the place where it had been hatched. This creature forces its way through the silk covering which the worm had woven, and goes immediately in quest of its mate; after which the female lays the eggs, which on an average may amount to about 200, and both male and female die in a very short time.

In Bengal the largest and best cocoons are preserved for the grain, and kept in bags suspended to the roof of the hut of the peasant. When the insect is ready to burst its prison, a few balls are placed in a large basket, on one shelf of a frame provided for the nurture of the worm. The frame in common use consists of 16 shelves, placed in a shed upon vessels filled with water, by way of precaution against ants. After the moths quit their covering, attendance is required to move the males as soon as their functions have been performed, and the females when they have produced their eggs. The basket is carefully covered with a cloth, and in a fortnight the worm quits the egg. They are first fed with mulberry leaves, chopped very fine; as they advance in their growth, they are dispersed into more baskets on the several shelves of the frame, and are supplied with leaves cut into larger pieces, and latterly with whole leaves until the period when the insect quits its food. As soon as it recommences eating, branches of mulberry-trees are thrown on with the leaves upon them, and the insects eat with eagerness, and soon fill the baskets on the whole number of shelves: they arrive at their full size in a little more than a month from their birth, and, changing their skins for the last time, are disposed to begin their cones. They are now

removed to baskets, divided into spiral compartments, where they spin their webs, and cover themselves with silk. When the cocoon is completed, a few are set apart for propagation, and the rest are exposed to the heat of the sun, for the purpose of killing the chrysalis.

The peasants sell the cocoons to the filatures, or winding houses, most of whom are in the employ of the Company. From the rejected balls they wind the silk by the following process:—The cocoons must be allowed to cool after exposure to the sun. The excretions of the worms are collected from the feeding baskets, and thrown into a hole dug for that purpose. The balls of silk are put into the hole, which is carefully covered up. In two days they are taken out, and boiled in an earthen vessel, and the silk is wound off by a hand-reel or by the common one, both of which are simple, and do not differ materially from the machine used for that purpose in Europe. From the fur picked off the cocoons, and from those which are perforated, coarse silk is spun, which is used for making carpets and other purposes.

The following is the mode of propagating the mulberry-tree in Bengal. The waste land is opened with the spade in the month of April; good soil is brought, and enough is thrown on to raise it one cubit. The ground is well broken with the plough, and levelled with an implement which in form resembles a ladder, but which supplies the place of a harrow. The mulberry is planted in October; the slips are cut a span long, thrown into a hole, covered from the sun, and are continually watered until at the end of a fortnight they begin to vegetate. They are then transplanted into the field, in holes distant a span from each other, and nearly one span deep; four or five cuttings are placed obliquely in each hole, which is then filled up, so as to cover the slips with a finger of earth closely pressed down. As soon as the plants appear, in December or January, the field is weeded. In April, when they are grown to the height of a cubit, they are topped, so as to leave a stem one hand high; otherwise it is thought that the leaves would be bitter and hard, and that the worms would refuse them. A hand-hoeing is now given, and a fortnight afterwards the leaves are ready for use. The plant is then cut down a little above the root, and the silkworms are fed with the leaves; the field is weeded, if necessary, and another crop is obtained in June, and a third in July; but the leaves of this last crop only are gathered without cutting the stem, because that operation at so late a season would, it is apprehended, injure the plant. The field is again weeded, and a fourth crop is ready in September; after gathering it, the ground is ploughed several times, and levelled with the implement above mentioned. In November a hand-hoeing assists vegetation, and accelerates the best crop, which is cut in December; this is followed by a hand-hoeing and weeding, and is succeeded by another crop in March. The same course recommences, and the field, if sufficiently attended and cultivated, will continue to be productive during many years.

Bengal raw silk is divided into two classes; that reeled according to the old method, commonly called country-wound, and that reeled according to the new or Italian method. The places where the former is manufactured, are Comercolly, Jungypore, Rungpore, and Bauleah; and those where the latter is prepared, are Comercolly, Malda, Radnagore, Jungypore, Rungpore, Bauleah, Cossimbazar, and Gonatea: these are also distinguished by the manufacturers' names, as Beecher, Frushard, Collinson, &c.; and in England their respective marks of excellence are shewn by the letter A. B. C. D. &c.

In the choice of Bengal raw silk, particular attention should be paid to the brightness and clearness of the colour, whether white or yellow, the evenness of the thread, and the size. The best silk has invariably a gloss or brightness on its surface. The foulness of silk is easily discovered by looking along the skein: when turned obliquely from the light, the inferior silks are very unequal, and have many knits, and coarse stuff sticking to the thread; but the moss or head of the silk often appears fair to the eye when much coarseness is concealed under it. The size of the thread, provided the silk is good, is of no material consequence as to its value; if it is bad, the finer the thread is, the worse it will work. The thread should be equal, strong, round, and very clean; it should be in a medium with regard to fineness, for the

finest is not the easiest to manufacture to advantage. Particular care must be taken that the silk is perfectly dry when packed up, or it will be subject to mildew, or become discoloured. The filatures which now produce the best, are Comercolly, Gonatea, and Rungpore; there is also good silk from Jungypore and Cossimbuzar. Of the country-wound silk, the Jungypore, Rungpore, and Bauleah skeins are most esteemed. The regular demand among the manufacturers is for good silk; and they seem to be less solicitous about price, than a steady, constant, and uniform supply.

There are two other kinds of worms which produce silk in Bengal, viz. the Tussch and Arrindy worms: the former are found in such abundance over many parts of Bengal, and the adjoining provinces, as to have afforded to the natives, from time immemorial, a considerable supply of a most durable, coarse, dark-coloured silk, commonly called Tussch silk, which is woven into a kind of cloth called Tussch dooties, much worn by Bramins, and other sects of Hindoos. This substance would, no doubt, be highly useful to the inhabitants of many parts of America, and the south of Europe, where a cheap, light, cool, durable dress, such as this silk makes, is much wanted. This species cannot be domesticated.

The Arrindy silkworm is peculiar to the interior parts of Bengal, in the districts of Dinagepore and Rungpore, where the natives rear and breed it in a domestic state, as they do the silkworm. The food of this kind consists entirely of the leaves of the common Ricinus or Palma Christi plant, which the natives of these districts call Arrindy, and is abundantly reared over every part of India, on account of the oil obtained from the seed. Feeding these caterpillars with these leaves, will therefore make it doubly valuable where they know how to spin and manufacture the silk. Their cocoons are remarkably soft, and white or yellowish; and the filament so exceedingly delicate, as to render it impracticable to wind off the silk: it is therefore spun like cotton. The yarn thus manufactured, is wove into a course kind of white cloth, of a seemingly loose texture, but of incredible durability. Its uses are for clothing for both men and women; and it will wear constantly ten, fifteen, or twenty years. The merchants also use it for packing fine cloths, silks, or shawls. It must, however, be always washed in cold water; if put into boiling water, it makes it tear like old rotten cloth.

RISE AND PROGRESS OF THE SILK TRADE.

Silk does not appear to have been known to Homer, who flourished 907 B. C. nor even to Herodotus, who died 413 B. C. though he himself, and the Greeks of his age, had much intercourse with the Egyptians, Phœnicians, and Persians, opulent and luxurious nations, but who perhaps had not obtained any knowledge of it in his time. Aristotle, who flourished about 350 B. C. though the most ancient naturalist extant, gives the best account of the silkworm to be found in antiquity. He describes it a horned worm, which he calls bombyx, and says that it passes through several transformations in the course of six months, and that bombykia is produced from it. He adds it was decomposed, respun, and rewove. Dionysius, the Geographer, whom Augustus had sent to compile an account of the oriental regions, A.D. 14, informed the people of Europe, that precious garments were manufactured by the Seres, from threads finer than those of the spider which they combed from flowers. This precious manufacture found its way to Rome, where it was sold at a most enormous price, so that the use of it was restricted to a few women of the greatest fortunes. What its price was on its first appearance, we are not informed; but it must have been extremely high: for even in the latter part of the third century, the Emperor Aurelian, when his wife begged of him to let her have but one single gown of purple silk, refused it, saying he could not buy it at the price of gold. And we find by the Rhodian naval laws, preserved in the 11th book of the Digests, that unmixed silk goods, when shipwrecked, if they were saved free from wet, were to pay a salvage of 10 per cent. as being equal to gold in value.

A. D. 527. Silk had now come into general use among the Romans; and, notwithstanding the very high price of it, it was sought after with astonishing eagerness by the inhabitants of Constantinople. The manufacture of silk goods from raw silk imported from the east, had long been carried on in the ancient Phœnician cities of Tyre and Berytus, whence the western world used to be supplied. But the enhanced prices the manufacturers were obliged to pay to the Persians, in whose hands the trade in raw silk was at that period, made it impossible for them to furnish their goods at the former prices, especially in the Roman territories, where they were subject to a duty of 10 per cent. The Emperor Justinian, however, ordered that silk should be sold at the rate of eight pieces of gold per lb. (twelve ounces avoirdupois), on penalty of the forfeiture of the whole property of the offender. Justinian endeavoured, by means of his ally, the Christian Prince of Abyssinia, to wrest some portion of the silk-trade from the Persians. In this attempt he failed; but he obtained, in some measure, the object he had in view, in an extraordinary and unexpected manner. Two Persian Monks, inspired by religious zeal, or curiosity, had penetrated into the country of the Seres, and lived in it long enough to make themselves masters of the whole process of the silk manufacture. On their return to the westward, instead of communicating the knowledge to their own countrymen, they proceeded to Constantinople, and imparted to the Emperor the secret, hitherto so well preserved by the Seres, that silk was produced by a species of worm, the eggs of which might be transported with safety, and propagated in his dominions. By the promise of a great reward, they were engaged to return, whence they actually brought off a quantity of the silk worms' eggs concealed in a hollow cane, and conveyed them safely to Constantinople, A. D. 552. The eggs were hatched in the proper season by the warmth of a dunghill; and the worms produced from them were fed with the leaves of the mulberry-tree, spun their silk, and propagated their race, under the care of the Monks, who also taught the Romans the whole mystery of the manufacture. The important insects, so happily produced, were the progenitors of all the silkworms in Europe and the western parts of Asia; and a cane-full of the eggs of an oriental insect became the means of establishing a manufacture, which luxury and fashion rendered important, and of saving immense sums of money to Europe.

A. D. 947. Ebn Haukul, an Arabian traveller, states that the countries adjacent to the Caspian Sea produced great quantities of silk, whereof that of Mera in Khorassan, was most esteemed, the eggs of the silkworms being carried from thence to other places.

At the time of the Crusades, 1096 to 1186, we find that scarfs and mantles of silk, velvet, and satin were in use amongst the nobility who had embarked in those religious wars; and in 1130, all the attendants at the coronation dinner of Roger, King of Sicily, were dressed in silk.

1146. Greece, or rather the Roman empire in Europe, even in its degenerate state, continued to excel all the rest of Europe in the quality and variety of its manufactures, and in the ingenuity of its workmen and artists. That country alone, of all the Christian countries of Europe, possessed the valuable stock of silkworms which had been transported from the remotest extremities of the East about 500 years before; and the Greeks were the only Christians of Europe who still manufactured those costly articles of luxury fabricated from the spoils of the silkworm. But now the time was arrived when that manufacture was to be more widely dispersed. Roger the Norman, King of Sicily, invaded Greece, and carried off the wealth of Athens, Thebes, and Corinth; he also captured a great number of silk-weavers, whom he brought from those cities, and settled in Palermo, his capital city. By the King's order the Grecian prisoners taught his Sicilian subjects to raise and feed silkworms, and to weave all the varieties of silk stuffs; and so well did they profit by their instructions, that the silk fabrics of Sicily, about twenty years after the establishment of the manufacture, are described as excelling in a variety of patterns and colours, some with gold intermixed, and adorned with figures of pictures, and others embellished with pearls.

Though all the Christian part of Europe, except Greece, had been ignorant till now of the art of managing the silkworm, and the produce of its industry, the Saracens had before this time obtained the knowledge of the various operations of the silk manufacture, and spread it over all their wide extended dominions. Lisbon and Almeria, two Saracen cities of Spain, were particularly famous for their silk goods; and the Islands of Majorca and Ivica paid their tributes to the King of Arragon in silks of Almeria. By these means was the important manufacture of silk laid open to the ingenuity of the western nations.

The importation of silk into England must have been considerable at this period. In 1242 we are told that the streets of London were covered or shaded with silk, for the reception of Richard, the King's brother, on his return from the Holy Land: and in 1251, on the marriage of Alexander III. King of Scotland, to Margaret, the daughter of Henry III. King of England, 1000 English Knights are said to have appeared in robes of silk; and at the coronation of King Edward, in 1274, there was a prodigious display of silks and gold stuffs.

1321. Marino Sanuto, a Venetian traveller, states that silk is produced in considerable quantities in Apulia, Romania, Sicily, Crete, and Cyprus, and the quantity might be increased.

1454. At this period the silk manufactures of England were confined merely to ribbands, laces, and other trifling articles of haberdashery. The silk women of London complained to Parliament this year that the Lombards, and other foreigners, seeking to deprive women of their honest employments, imported the articles made by them, instead of bringing unwrought silk, as formerly. To prevent which, it was enacted by the 33d Henry VI. cap. 5, that during the five ensuing years no person whatever should import any wrought silk, twined ribbands or chains, girdles, or any other article interfering with the manufactures of the silk-women, except girdles of Genoa. This Act was afterwards prolonged.

1481. The Act prohibiting the importation of several kinds of silk goods being no longer in force, such an inundation of corses, ribbands, laces, call silk, and Coleyn silk poured into the country, that all the English makers of such goods were thrown idle. The Parliament, in consideration of their distress, prohibited the importation of all such goods for four years. 22d Edward IV. cap. 3.

1504. An Act, 19 Henry VII. cap. 21, for the advancement of the smaller silk manufactures in England, prohibited the importation of any manner of silk, wrought either by itself, or with any other stuff, in ribbands, laces, girdles, corses, and corses of tissues or points, upon pain of forfeiture of the same. It was, on the other hand, made lawful for all persons, as well foreigners as English, to import all other kinds of silks, as well wrought as raw and unwrought; by which it appears that at this time there was no broad manufacture of silk made in England.

1520. About this period the French laid the foundation for the establishment of the silk manufactures at Lyons, and other places in the southern part of France. They obtained workmen from Milan, and made great progress, supplying many parts of Europe with silk goods; yet it was long after this time when France acquired the method of rearing silkworms.

1558. At this period some Persian silk was imported through Russia, by the Russia Company; but the project of obtaining a regular supply by this mode of conveyance was soon afterwards dropped.

1572. The persecutions of the Protestants in France during a series of years drove several of the silk workmen to England; and many who had the good fortune to escape the massacre of St. Bartholomew, which took place in this year, found an asylum in London, where they were kindly received, and protected by Queen Elizabeth, which favour they largely and gratefully repaid by their industry and ingenuity, and many citizens and others were instructed by them in the art of weaving silks, &c.

1608. Henry IV. King of France considerably extended the manufacture of silk, and procured workmen from Flanders to conduct a manufacture of tapestry. The success which attended his exertions, excited in King James I. a laudable zeal for the propagation of silk in England. He caused a circular

letter of his own composition to be sent to the Lord Lieutenant of every county, in which he held forth the example of France, as affording ground to hope for equal success: "for neither," says he, "is the climate of this Isle so far distant or different in condition from that country, especially the hither parts thereof, but that it is to be hoped that those things which by industry prosper there, may by the like industry used here, have like success." He likewise observes that, from the experience of many private persons who had bred silkworms for their pleasure, nothing had appeared to cause a doubt that they might be nourished and maintained in England, if provision was made for planting of mulberry-trees; and for this purpose the persons to whom the letter was directed, were required at the quarter session, or some other public meeting, to persuade those of ability, to buy, and distribute in the country, the number of ten thousand mulberry-plants, which were to be delivered in London at the rate of three farthings a plant. These plants, or perhaps a few reared by the individuals whom the King mentions as having bred silkworms for their pleasure, were the first mulberry-trees planted in England.

The King also caused printed instructions to be published for planting and propagating the mulberry-trees, and for breeding and feeding the worms; and though at first many persons were probably averse to such a new undertaking, yet by the continuance of the royal sanction and support, and the consideration of the great advantages reaped by other European nations from their silk manufactures, the people in the course of a few years became very earnest for the propagation of the silkworms, and of the white mulberry-tree for feeding them.

1621. Previous to the commencement of the trade between England and the East Indies, England was dependent on Turkey for the silk consumed in her manufactures. Raw silk was therefore considered as the article of most consequence, and great exertions were made, and expence incurred, in forming establishments in Persia, with a view of securing a certain and regular supply from thence for the use of the manufactures in England. Mr. Munn states the importation to be 107,140 lbs. which cost in India 7s. per lb. and that the selling price in England was 20s. He also states that many hundreds of people were constantly employed in winding, twisting, and weaving silk in London.

About this time the manufacture of raw silk into broad silk goods commenced; for which purpose Mr. Burlamach, a merchant, by the direction of the King, brought over silk-throwsters, silk-dyers, and broad-weavers.

1629. King Charles I. granted to Lord Aston the keeping of the garden, mulberry-trees, and silkworms near St. James's; this was probably upon the spot since called the Mulberry Garden, beyond the south-west gate of St. James's park, towards Chelsea. The young mulberry-trees, even for many years after this period, were all raised from seed brought from warmer climates. But little success attended this undertaking, which soon declined.

1629. From the regular supply of raw silk, which was now received from India, amounting to near £100,000 per annum, and the demand for silk goods in London, the silk manufacture was much extended, and had become so considerable, that the silk-throwsters of the city, and within four miles of it, were incorporated under the name of the Master, Wardens, &c. of Silk-Throwsters; who were empowered to take apprentices, make bye-laws, and establish other regulations for the benefit of their trade.

1630. The following proclamation partly shews the state of the silk manufacture in England at this period:—"That the trade of silk within this realm, by the importation thereof raw from foreign parts, and throwing, dying, and working the same into manufactures here at home, is much increased within a few years past. But a fraud in the dying thereof being lately discovered, by adding to the weight of the silk in the dye beyond a just proportion, by a false and deceitful mixture in the ingredients used in dying, whereby also the silk is weakened and corrupt, and the colour made worse: wherefore we strictly command that no silk-dyer do hereafter use any slip, alder bark, filings of iron, or other deceitful matters

in dying silk, either black or coloured. That no silk shall be dyed of any other black than Spanish black, and not of the dye called London black, or light weight. Neither shall they dye any silk before the gum be fairly boiled off from the silk being raw;" with a variety of minor regulations relative to dying.

1655. The silk manufacture of England had now become a national object of much importance, as it was stipulated, by the 5th article of the Treaty of Westminster, that "the subjects of England might freely bring to France, and sell therein all sorts of silks and woollen stuffs of their own fabrication."

1694. From the time of the conquest it had been a complaint that the inhabitants of England had ever given a preference to the production of other climes. This ridiculous prejudice had in the 17th century extended so far, that a company of slight silk manufacturers were in this year considerable sufferers by this unfounded idea, the futility of which they undertook to evince by having a parcel of a-la-modes, of their own fabrication, sold by the permission of Government, as condemned silks of the manufacture of France, together with a parcel which were really of that country; and it will appear by the following account, that the English silks sold for considerably more than the French silks.

An Account of a Sale of French Silks, by Inch of Candle, the 17th of February, 1695-6.

"On Monday, the 17th of February, 1695-6, will be sold by the candle, at the Custom-house, London, the several parcels of French silks following, which have been seized, and condemned according to law, and are to be seen at the King's warehouses in the Custom-house, the 14th and 15th instant, from two to four in the afternoon.

"Lot 1st, five pieces narrow a-la-modes, at 5s. 2d. per ell, to advance 1d. each bidding."

Then follow five more lots of the same.

"Lot 7th, 5 pieces broad a-la-modes, at 6s. 2d. per ell, to advance 1d. each bidding."

Then follow four more lots of the same.

These eleven lots, containing fifty-one pieces of a-la-modes of English fabric, are followed in the catalogue by six lots of a-la-modes that were of French manufacture; and it appears that the bidders, while they were ignorant of the matter, preferred the English so much to the French silks, that they actually gave nine-pence per yard more for the former than the latter. It appears that all the pieces, foreign and domestic, that were opposed to each other, were of equal weight, width, and quality.

At this time, as appears by a report of a Committee of the House of Commons, to whom the petition of the Royal Lustering Company was referred, and who also were empowered to consider a great number of papers, writings, and letters relating to the silk smuggling trade, that a considerable combination existed against the silk trade of this kingdom, and that a great number of persons, many of whom were afterwards impeached, were concerned in the introduction of foreign silks, and conveying wool from hence, to the detriment and disadvantage of the English manufactures.

1680. The Turkey or Levant Company began to complain about this period of the East India Company, on account of the great quantities of silk they imported by way of the Cape of Good Hope, which had formerly been imported solely from Turkey. They made a formal complaint to the King on the subject, in which they stated their exports to amount to £500,000, consisting principally of woollen manufactures and other English wares; in return for which, they imported raw silks, galls, drugs, cotton, &c. all of which being manufactured in the kingdom, afforded bread and employment to the poor. On the other hand, they stated the East India Company exported much bullion, with an inconsiderable quantity of cloth; in return for which, they imported a deceitful kind of raw silk, which was an inevitable destruction to the Turkey trade. It was also stated at this period, that the Company had sent to India throwsters, weavers, and dyers, and had set up a manufacture of silk, which, by instructing the Indians in these manufactures, and by importing them so made, tended to impoverish the working people in England.

The East India Company's reply was to the following effect:—"That with respect to the Turkey Company's objections to the importation of raw silk, it is essential to the good of the kingdom that since their importation of it, the silk manufactures have increased from one to four. With respect to the quality of the India raw silk, it is the same as with all other commodities, some good, some bad, and some indifferent. With respect to the sending to India throwsters, weavers, and dyers, the whole is a mistake, excepting only as to one or two dyers usually sent to Bengal, and to no other part of India; and this for the nation's as well as the Company's advantage, especially as to plain black silks, generally exported again." This defence was deemed satisfactory, and the complaints of the Turkey Company were dismissed.

1685. The revocation of the Edict of Nantz occasioned vast numbers of ingenious artists to sacrifice their property, tear themselves from their dearest friends and connexions, and subject themselves to banishment from their native land. Upwards of 50,000 of them came to England, and brought with them many useful arts in which they were perfectly skilled, particularly designing, weaving, and other businesses appendant to the manufacture of silk, which they established at Spitalfields, in London. To them England is said to be indebted for the silks called a-la-modes, lutestrings, brocades, satins, paduasoys, &c.

From this period the silk manufacture began to flourish in England. The various produce of it being reduced in price, it became the general fashion for all, except the lowest orders of the community. It appears that at this period great quantities of French silk goods were brought into England; and it was estimated that in the three years, 1686-7 and 8, there were imported lutestrings and a-la-modes to the value of £212,500, and of other silk fabrics, £500,000 per annum.

1690. It being found that large quantities of silk were sent from various parts into Italy, to be thrown, from whence it was imported into England, in direct contradiction to the spirit of the Navigation Act, which declares that no goods of foreign growth, production, or manufacture shall be imported but in British ships, to be laden direct from the places where such goods are grown, produced, or manufactured; an Act passed, in which it was specified that, for the better supporting the art of throwing of silk in this realm, and the poor therein employed, the throwing of silk should not be considered as a manufacture within the meaning of the Navigation Act; and for the further encouragement and protection of this branch, thrown silk was prohibited to be imported from all parts, except Italy, Sicily, or Naples, and from thence only in vessels navigated according to law.

1692. This year the French refugees in England, having formed a successful project for making lustring, commonly called lutestring, and a-la-mode silks, articles in great demand, and for which large sums had been paid to France yearly, they obtained a patent for the sole privilege of making those silks, which they soon brought to great perfection, and thus contributed to the improvement of the English silk manufacture in general. By an Act of the 8th and 9th of King William, chap. 36, it appears that the Royal Lustring Company had then brought this manufacture to the greatest perfection; in consequence of which, foreign lustrings and a-la-modes were entirely prohibited.

1697. The trade with India being at this time carried on by two rival Companies, there was such an excessive importation of the various kinds of East India and China wrought silks, and the prices were so reduced, as to occasion great loss to the importers; and it interfered so much with the home manufactures of silks, as to occasion great discontent among the manufacturers throughout England, more particularly in London, where they became very outrageous, and carried their violence so far, as to attempt to seize the treasure at the East India House, and had almost succeeded in it; but were in the end reduced to order.

1700. The great cheapness of Indian silks occasioned the wear of them to become almost universal throughout England; to remedy which, an Act was passed for encouraging the home manufactures, which enacted, "that from Michaelmas, 1701, all wrought silks, Bengals, and stuffs mixed with silk or herba, of the manufacture of Persia, China, or the East Indies, should be locked up in warehouses till re-exported;

so that none of the said goods should be worn or used, in either apparel or furniture, in England, on forfeiture thereof, and also of £200 penalty on the person having or selling any of them. 11 and 12 Will. III. chap. 10.

1701. Upon the rupture with France, it was enacted by the 1st Anne, chap. 37, that during the war, Italian silk might be brought from any place whatever, except France and Spain; and as a further protection to the throwsters of this country, a prohibition was laid on the importation of trams, and all thrown silks coarser than third Bolognas, as also on all thrown silks of Persia, India, and China, on pain of forfeiture.

That the policy by which these restrictions and exceptions were dictated, may be sufficiently understood, it may be proper to remark that at the period of passing these Acts, and for many years afterwards, the throwsters in England, from the insufficiency of the machinery then in use, were not competent to furnish the weavers with any other description of silk than singles and trams for the woof; the organzine for the warp was altogether supplied from Italy, where the art of throwing it was long kept a most profound secret. Thus, in extending protection to the former, it became equally necessary to make a provision in favour of the latter.

1713. It was stated in Parliament, in the debate upon the Treaty of Utrecht, which took place in this year, that the silk manufactures of this kingdom had been brought to such great perfection, that about 300,000 persons were maintained by them. For the carrying on these, we bought great quantities of silk from Turkey and Italy, by which the people in those countries came to take off great quantities of our manufactures; so that our demand for silk had opened markets for our woollen goods, which must absolutely have failed, if our manufacture of silk at home should have been lost.

The great importance of the silk manufactures at this time eminently appeared from a petition to Parliament by the Weavers' Company, of London. They therein set forth that, by the encouragement of the Crown, and of divers Acts of Parliament, the silk manufacture had come to be above twenty times as great as it was in the year 1664; and that all sorts of black and coloured silks, gold and silver stuffs, and ribbons, were then made in England as good as in France. That black silk for hoods and scarfs, not made above twenty-five years before, had amounted annually to above £300,000 worth for several years, which before were imported from France; and which increase of the silk manufacture had caused an increase of our exportation of woollen goods, &c. This petition was levelled against the eighth and ninth articles of the Commercial Treaty with France, the ratification of which, proposed by Parliament, would, in place of our silk manufacture, have introduced an inundation of French silks, ribbands, embroideries, &c. to the great injury of the manufacturers, who during the two last wars had done great damage to the French by imitating and even excelling them in many of their best silk manufactures, wherewith they had before supplied almost all the rest of Europe.

1719. By the enterprising talents of a spirited individual, the art of throwing organzine was introduced into England. Mr. Lombe, a merchant of London, of a mechanical turn, having succeeded in obtaining admission to the mills in Piedmont, he secretly drew a plan of them, and established a set of mills on a similar construction at Derby. As a reward for his exertions, George I. granted him the exclusive privilege of working organzine for a term of 14 years. The discovery was held to be an object of such national importance, that at the end of the period, the legislature granted his brother, Sir Thomas Lombe, who had succeeded to the possession of the mills, the sum of £14,000, on condition that they should be laid open, and that models of the machinery should be deposited in the Tower of London for public inspection. Similar mills were in consequence set up in various parts of the country; but owing to the difficulties that were experienced in procuring silk of the proper quality for throwing, (the King of Sardinia having prohibited the exportation of it in its raw state), and to the manufacturers having subsequently found nearly full employment in the increased demand for singles and trams, which yield a better profit,

the quantities that have been worked into organzine, have hitherto borne no proportion to the imports from Italy, from whence, as has already been shewn, the principal supply is derived.

By the book of rates, established by the 12th of Charles II. chap. 4, raw silk is valued, for duty, at 10s. per lb. of 24 oz. and thrown silk at 16s. 8d. per lb. of 16 oz.; and the like rates of valuation were preserved in all the subsequent impositions till 1765, when, by the 5th Geo. III. chap. 29, an alteration took place, the object of which was to encourage the importation of raw silk in preference to thrown, by reducing the duty upon raw silk from 1s. 1½d. to 1s. 3d per lb.; at the same time, to make up for the defalcation which the revenue would sustain by the reduction, a further duty of 6d. per lb. was laid upon thrown silk. Under this regulation the duties, reducing the pounds to equal weights, were on raw silk 10d. per lb. and on thrown silk 4s. 5d. ¼ per. lb.

1722. The silk manufacture being brought to great perfection in all its branches, so as to equal the finest fabrics of any foreign nation, the British legislature now judged it proper to enact new encouragements to so noble a manufacture, by an Act of 3d Geo. I. chap. 15, for encouraging the silk manufactures of the kingdom, and for promoting its exportation to foreign parts, by granting the following bounties thereon for three years:

For ribbands and stuffs of silk only, per each average pound	£0 3 0
Silks, and ribbands of silk, mixed with gold and silver, ditto	0 4 0
Silk stockings, gloves, fringes, laces, stitching and sewing silk, ditto	0 1 0

with correspondent allowances on stuffs of silk and grogram, silk and worsted, &c. This bounty was founded on the consideration of the raw materials paying a large duty on importation.

1730. The English silk goods were in great favour abroad, as appears by Keyslar's Travels, who says, "In Italy itself the silks of English manufacture are most esteemed, and bear a greater price than those of Italy; so that at Naples, when a tradesman would highly recommend his silk stockings, &c. he protests they are right English."

1741. The Russia Company obtained a new charter, authorizing them to import silks from Persia by way of Russia. This scheme was for some time successfully practised; and considerable quantities of raw silk, and other Persian produce, were imported in this way: but the distracted state of that country soon compelled them to abandon the trade.

1749. The duties on raw silk imported from China, were now reduced to the same duty as Indian raw silk; and, with a view to encourage the growth of silk in America, a law was passed admitting it to be imported, duty free, if properly certified to be the growth and produce of the British colonies.

The following accounts of the quantities of raw silk imported, and from what parts, with the remarks thereon, are principally extracted from the reports made by the East India Company at various periods on the subject of the silk trade.

1750. The silk imported into Great Britain in this year, and from whence, was as follows:

Flanders	lbs. 1,407	Italy	lbs. 36,301
Spain and Portugal	2,564	East India (including China)	43,876
Straits	14,897	Turkey	132,894

forming a total of 231,939 lbs. by which it appears that the imports from Turkey were more than one-half, from the East Indies and China less than one-fifth, and from Italy less than one-sixth.

1764. The silk-throwsters, and others in the silk trade, presented a memorial to the Lords of Trade, stating that the quantity of raw silk imported was not sufficient to answer the demands of the trade. In order that the manufactures might not suffer for the want of materials, the Parliament took off the old duties paid upon the importation of raw silk, and laid a new duty of 1s. 3d. per lb. of 24 oz. on raw silk, and 1s. 9d. per lb. on thrown silk, to be paid on importation, without any drawback on exportation, except

to Ireland; and in the following year, foreign manufactured silk stockings, silk mits, and silk gloves were prohibited to be imported after the 24th of June, 1765; and the prohibition of the importation of ribbands, laces, and girdles of silk, enacted by Henry VII. was now enforced by a heavier penalty. The importation and sale of foreign made silks and velvets were afterwards totally prohibited, excepting those imported from India, and silk tiffanies from Italy.

1765. From 1751 to 1765 the silk imported from Bengal rose, on an average, to about 80,340 small pounds of 16 ounces each, per annum; and no doubt but the quantities from other parts increased in an equal, if not a superior, degree of proportion.

When the Company obtained possession of the Bengal provinces, it was judged expedient to extend their commercial concerns, with a view of realizing the surplus revenues of India. The article of raw silk appeared the most eligible for the interests of that country; first, as affording the means for extending cultivation; and, secondly, by creating additional employment for the natives. In 1766 there was an import of 195,637 small lbs.; and, on an average of the five succeeding years, from 1767 to 1771, it increased to 327,630 small lbs. per annum. But as the quality of the article was of the kind at present known by the technical term of Bengal wound, or silk reeled in the rude and artless manner immemorially practised by the natives of that country, it was suited but to a few articles of home manufacture, the principal consumption being in sewing silk, buttons, twist, and other articles of haberdashery, of comparatively limited demand. The market, by these increased imports, became so overcharged as to cause a reduction in the price; the silk which in 1765 sold at 27s. per great lb. sold in 1771-2 at 18s. 6d. per great lb. notwithstanding the sales in these periods fell short of the imports by 171,807 lbs.

Experience having thus shewn that the article had been pushed to its utmost extremity without effecting the desired end, a plan was next suggested for introducing into Bengal the mode of winding practised in the filatures, or winding-houses of Italy and other parts of the Continent; which, if carried into execution, might create an opening for a still further consumption, by its becoming a substitute for some of the silks of Italy, Turkey, and Spain, to divers of the manufacturing branches of which, in its then state, it was not applicable. This plan, on being maturely considered, was deemed sufficiently eligible, and the needful measures were taken for carrying it into effect.

Although the first consignment of filature-wound silk reached England in 1772, yet it was not till 1775 that the new mode could be considered as in full operation. In the intermediate period much time was unavoidably taken up in erecting buildings, fitting up furnaces, reels, &c. and in instructing the natives, who are most scrupulously averse to innovations of every kind; to which, above all, may be added, that the country was recovering but slowly from the calamitous effects of a most dreadful famine, which swept off millions of the lower class of inhabitants, and occasioned a considerable defalcation in every species of its productions. From these causes the imports of silk from Bengal, from 1772 to 1775, the filature included, as will appear from the tables of silk imported, were so circumscribed as not to exceed, on an average, 187,404 small lbs. by which the price came round to about 24s. per great lb., which in general may be considered as about its fair level.

The new mode of winding being now sufficiently established, and the country recovered from its enfeebled state, the meditated competition took place, and was pursued with such energy and effect, as politically to answer the most sanguine expectations, although the issue commercially, from a variety of concurring circumstances, was unfortunate in the extreme. From 1776 to 1785 the imports from Bengal appear to have been, on an average, 560,283 small lbs. while those from Italy, Turkey, &c. did not exceed 282,304 lbs. During this period the raw silk was provided by contract, and by which the Company sustained a loss of £884,744, as will appear by the following account.

The result of this successful effort was quickly seen in the declension of the trade from Aleppo, Valencia, Naples, Calabria, and other parts; from many of which, that formerly furnished very consider-

able quantities, not a single bale was imported for many years; so that, generally speaking, the silk manufactured in England is now furnished from the northern provinces of Italy, Bengal, and China.

The following is a statement of the quantities of raw silk imported into England from Bengal; the quantities sold; the prime cost thereof, including duties, freight, and charges; the sale amount thereof, the discount deducted; and the loss sustained by the East India Company for ten years previous to the abolition of the system of supplying it by contract.

Season.	Imported.	Sold.	Total of prime Cost, Duties, Freight, and Charges.	Sale Amount, Discount deducted.	Loss.
	Small lbs. of 16 ounces.				
1776	2,515,913	2,311,751	£469,851	£325,653	£144,198
1777	563,121	547,045	440,877	323,031	117,846
1778	602,954	569,345	472,114	325,505	146,609
1779	737,560	596,343	421,899	299,053	122,846
1780	235,216	574,065	288,033	217,599	71,394
1781	785,673	553,563	629,438	481,584	147,854
1782	77,610	292,141	64,160	56,752	7,408
1783	611,077	592,831	480,515	388,233	92,282
1784	1,149,364	486,336	874,097	779,626	94,471
1785	324,507	576,175	252,617	212,721	39,896
Total	5,602,829	5,119,595	4,534,501	3,449,757	884,744

Previous to the year 1786, the Company's investments of raw silk were chiefly provided by contract. Under this system, particularly in the earlier part of its establishment, the most flagrant abuses prevailed: the Company's interests were sacrificed; the manufacturers were oppressed; and, as a natural result, the goods were furnished of debased qualities, and at extravagant rates of cost.

In 1782, during Mr. Hastings's administration, the evils before alluded to, received a partial check; but it was reserved for the wisdom of Lord Cornwallis's councils, seconded by the active superintendence of the Board of Trade, appointed by his Lordship under a new establishment, to effect that radical reform which has since happily been introduced into every branch of the Company's commercial concerns. In short, by abolishing the mode of provision by contract, and substituting in its room that of agency, corruption has ceased; errors have been corrected; the manufacturers have been relieved; the fabrics have been restored; and goods of the choicest description have been supplied at genuine and reduced rates of cost. The benefits which have resulted to the Company from the success of his Lordship's measures, as far as they regard the article under consideration, are conspicuously exemplified by the statement, which follows hereafter, of the cost, amount sales, &c. in the years 1786 to 1803 inclusive.

The era of the commencement of the cotton fabrics upon an enlarged scale may be dated about the year 1787: and although, since that time, it will be seen that the imports of silk from Bengal have fallen considerably short of what they were in former periods, it will also be found that they have been more than equal to what the market has required. The issue of the sales is an infallible test for ascertaining the quantum of demand. It appears that in the five years,

Commencing 1783, and ending 1787, the Company sold ..... 2,437,384 small lbs.
And in the subsequent five years, *viz.* from 1788 to 1792, only ..... 1,693,784 ditto

a quantity less by one-third; and the trade was at so low an ebb, that though the average quantity of Bengal silk sold, was 338,757 small lbs. it was stated that no reduction of price would add a single ounce to the consumption. With respect to the imports from China, it will be seen that the quantities sold in the last five years were, on an average, 220,526 small lbs.

1793. The French Revolution gave a severe check to commerce. Its influence was felt not only in England, but in every market upon the Continent. A general alarm prevailed; mercantile transactions were in a great degree suspended, and manufactures in general were nearly at a stand. The silk trade participated largely in this scene of distress, and experienced a more than ordinary depression. Great numbers of weavers were out of employ; the buyers were loaded with a heavy stock of silk upon hand; the East India Company had a large quantity in their warehouses unsold; and the imports in the approaching season were expected to be considerable. Under these circumstances a memorial was presented to the Company by the trade, requesting that the September sale of 1793 might be altogether dispensed with. The Company's exigencies were too pressing to admit of this request being complied with; but, with a view of affording the buyers every relief within their power, it was agreed to postpone the sale for four months. At the end of that period no favourable change having taken place, the Company, from their increasing difficulties, found themselves under the unavoidable necessity of forcing the market. A sale was made, and the silk actually disposed of; but at such reduced rates, that the loss upon the quantity sold on February 25, 1794, was £47,746.

With a view of guarding against future losses, and of enabling Bengal to avail herself of the advantages she was found in a capacity to derive from the increased produce of raw silk, the Company proposed the measure of causing the surplus quantity of silk beyond what the markets could take in its raw state, to be thrown into organzine in England, for the purpose of its being brought into use as a substitute for part of the thrown silk imported from Italy; and upon consulting some intelligent persons in the silk line, there seemed good reason to conclude that it would be found sufficiently adapted to the warp of ribbands. An experiment was therefore made; and although the issue was in every respect encouraging and satisfactory, and the legality of the Company's proceedings were strongly combated by those interested in the imports from Italy, yet there were many persons in the trade decidedly hostile to the undertaking, and who confidently pronounced it was impossible it could ever be brought to answer. Among the various objections that were urged, it was asserted, in a memorial from the silk merchants addressed to the Lords of Trade, "that as Bengal raw silk had, in the general opinion, attained its utmost possible state of perfection, it could only, when worked into organzine, be used in a few articles of the silk manufacture; that in most others, from its irremediable deficiency of staple, it could not be substituted for Italian organzine; and that the attempt to introduce it into a more general consumption, would produce the greatest discontents and tumults among the journeymen weavers, particularly of Spitalfields, who universally reprobated Bengal organzine." The object was, however, too important, and the prospect too flattering, to be hastily abandoned. Further trials were made, and in proportion as the article became more known, and the views of the Company were better understood, much of the prejudice that had been excited against the measure, subsided.

The quantities of thrown silk, imported into England in the under-mentioned periods, appear to have been as follow, of which at least nine-tenths have been from Italy:

In the 10 years ..... 1776 to 1785 inclusive, on an average, per annum ..... 392,918 small lbs.
In the 5 years ..... 1786 to 1790 ..... ditto ..... 391,746 ditto
In the 2 years ..... 1791 to 1792 ..... ditto ..... 453,535 ditto

The silk, when thrown, is used for the warp in the manufacture of ribbands and broad goods, in each branch of which the consumption is considered nearly equal.

In 1796 the reputation of the article was so far established, that a great number of the most eminent houses in the various branches of silk manufacture presented to the Court of Directors a memorial, dated London, February 5, 1795, of which the following is a copy:

"We, the undersigned silk-manufacturers, understanding from the reports published by the East India Company, that the Bengal provinces are capable of furnishing a more abundant supply of raw silk than hitherto, are of opinion, if due attention is paid, in the first instance, to reel the same of proper sizes, that, after making a due provision for singles, trams, and sewing silks, the surplus, by being thrown into organzine in this country, can be successfully brought into use in our respective manufactories to a very considerable extent, in lieu of part of the thrown silk at present supplied from Italy. Considering, therefore, the measure now carrying on by the East India Company as highly laudable, and meriting every degree of support, we trust they will persevere in the same with firmness, being well convinced that it cannot fail of proving highly beneficial to the national interests.

"First, by giving to a country which makes part of the British dominions, the advantages derivable from the production of a commodity which forms the basis of one of the most important of the national manufactures.

"Secondly, by creating employment at home for a numerous class of our poor, particularly women and children, in the throwing of it into organzine.

"Lastly, by affording a large and more certain supply to the manufacturers in general, it may have a tendency to lower the prices of the raw material, and in future to shelter the silk market from the alarming fluctuations that have repeatedly taken place, and probably increase greatly the general consumption of the silk-manufactures."

Thus pointedly called upon by the principal consumers, the weight of whose testimony was sufficient to silence all doubts with regard to the propriety of the measure, the Company sent directions to the Bengal Government, to extend their consignments to 4000 bales per annum. Instructions were also forwarded, requiring them to pay the most unremitting attention to the quality; means were also suggested for remedying existing defects, and samples were transmitted for their guidance in regard to sizes: in consequence of which, the quality has in general been in a progressive state of improvement, and in some instances has arrived at such a degree of excellence, as to rival the most perfect productions of Italy.

In consequence of this improvement, the use of Bengal organzine has not been confined merely to the warp of ribbands, but it has been introduced with equal success in sarcenets, Florentines, modes, handkerchiefs, velvets, &c.; and Bengal raw and thrown silks, in their present improved state, are fully competent to most of the material and extensive purposes to which the raw and thrown silks of Italy have hitherto been exclusively applied; and if they could be furnished in sufficient quantities, they would supplant at least three-fourths of the silks at present drawn from Italy.

1803. It appears that from the period the measure of throwing Bengal silk into organzine was resorted to, in 1794 to 1803, a period of ten years, there were thrown 1453 bales, or rather more than 140 bales per annum: and that this quantity sold at the sales for £268,395, the whole of which sum would have gone to the aggrandizement of Italy. This sum may be thus divided:

Bengal benefited in the prime cost, or, in other words, in the manufacture and culture	£124,711
And the remainder, which is thus appropriated, is added to the riches of the country, *viz.*	
The charge of throwing, which gave employment to the industrious poor	78,167
In freight and duties, which benefit navigation, and assist the revenue.....	25,066
And after deducting from the sale amount 5 per cent. for the charges of merchandise, which are principally labour	13,420
It yielded the Company a profit in the last five years of £28,688, from which deducting a loss in the former five years of £1,637, leaves a net gain of	27,031
Total.....	£268,395

The following is an account of the quantities of raw silk imported into Great Britain from Bengal, China, Italy, Turkey, and all other places, in the thirty years, 1773 to 1802 inclusive: likewise the quantity of thrown silk imported during the same period.

Years.	RAW SILK IMPORTED.					Thrown Silk imported.	Total of raw and thrown Silk imported.
	Bengal.	China.	Italy and Turkey.	Other Parts.	Total.		
	Small lbs.	Small lbs.	Small lbs.	Small lbs.	Small lbs.	Small lbs.	Small lbs.
1773	145,777	203,401	187,099	6,190	542,467	234,906	777,373
1774	213,549	276,781	220,933	2,610	713,873	428,978	1,142,851
1775	208,881	167,229	278,782	13,380	662,272	411,895	1,074,167
1776	515,913	241,839	515,235	22,048	1,295,035	454,414	1,752,449
1777	563,121	221,902	350,640	42,451	1,178,114	396,543	1,574,657
1778	602,964	266,678	133,636	12,558	1,012,836	186,512	1,199,348
1779	737,560	234,906	850	130,503	1,103,819	383,042	1,486,861
1780	235,216	301,300	844	209,557	445,617	487,678	933,295
1781	785,673	301,301	23,878	288,906	1,701,058	443,384	2,144,442
1782	77,610	79,725	37,894	178,084	373,313	331,685	704,998
1783	611,071	241,107	140,866	129,758	1,122,802	495,203	1,618,005
1784	1,149,394	100,602	262,419	74,688	1,587,103	406,468	1,993,571
1785	324,307	98,920	245,230	25,996	694,453	344,251	1,038,704
1786	252,985	99,551	222,175	35,101	560,812	361,448	931,260
1787	178,180	366,878	185,983	21,583	752,624	389,381	1,142,005
1788	305,965	312,182	148,922	23,207	790,276	306,640	1,096,916
1789	427,263	257,022	148,582	23,881	856,748	393,258	1,250,006
1790	320,826	216,005	194,974	25,953	757,758	508,005	1,265,763
1791	373,503	203,539	294,103	38,288	909,433	470,195	1,379,628
1792	380,107	104,830	388,500	45,881	889,318	436,875	1,326,193
1793	736,081	165,435	110,276	8,216	1,020,008	241,955	1,261,963
1794	521,460	99,356	44,911	17,501	683,328	330,978	1,014,306
1795	389,352	154,590	80,579	110,995	726,416	336,995	1,063,411
1796	347,936	12,968	19,045	107,682	487,631	398,948	886,579
1797	92,204	78,520	4,058	91,494	266,276	401,662	667,938
1798	353,394	136,196	——	241,295	730,885	402,917	1,133,802
1799	644,819	63,604	11,455	520,594	1,240,832	467,349	1,708,181
1800	583,086	92,385	40,239	117,862	833,572	333,717	1,167,289
1801	443,862	131,335	62,264	193,503	831,964	275,149	1,107,113
1802	244,809	75,588	179,009	183,395	692,801	396,210	1,089,011

The greater part of which is consumed in the manufactures, as will appear from the following account of the quantities of the different kinds of raw and thrown silk exported in the years 1790 to 1796 inclusive, being three years previous to the year in which the war commenced, and three years after:

	Bengal.	China.	Italy and Turkey.	Thrown.	Total.
1790	43,500 lbs.	10,758 lbs.	15,285 lbs.	20,064 lbs.	89,607 lbs.
1791	36,456	8,209	21,847	22,428	88,940
1792	13,406	5,310	15,798	10,579	45,093
1793	19,397	3,572	5,590	2,607	31,166
1794	61,989	7,502	19,643	24,385	107,519
1795	39,547	3,622	11,640	27,425	82,234
1796	70,113	7,279	11,289	38,927	127,608

The exports in 1796 were to the following places:—Russia 24,964 lbs. Holland 299 lbs. Germany 10,577 lbs. Italy 1,007 lbs. Gibraltar 3,084 lbs. Turkey 944 lbs. and the remaining 86,733 lbs. to Ireland.

From the establishment of the agency system in Bengal, which took place in 1786, till 1803, the Company's investments of raw silk have in general been productive, as will appear from the following account of the prime cost, including freight and charges in each year; the sale amount in England during the same period; and the profit or loss arising therefrom in each of the above years.

Season.	Prime Cost, including Freight and Charges.	Sale Amount.	Profit.	Loss.
	£	£	£	£
1786	192,898	198,507	5,609	—
1787	133,795	145,712	11,917	—
1788	212,357	221,888	9,531	—
1789	276,732	289,271	12,539	—
1790	268,790	302,993	34,203	—
1791	290,159	320,395	30,236	—
1792	262,902	276,317	13,415	—
1793	274,553	221,329	—	53,224
1794	290,419	309,743	19,324	—
1795	378,512	381,385	2,873	—
1796	335,315	327,427	—	7,888
1797	262,917	258,644	—	4,273
1798	277,990	322,873	44,883	—
1799	324,460	390,149	65,689	—
1800	208,969	297,645	88,676	—
1801	262,428	395,410	132,982	—
1802	156,302	269,249	112,747	—
1803	195,117	292,659	97,542	—
Total.	4,604,815	5,221,596	682,166	65,385

leaving a net profit in 18 years of £616,781, which on an average is £34,266 per ann. or about 13 per cent.

During the seven years, 1786 to 1793, the provisions were made under many unpropitious circumstances, such as storms, inundations, droughts, &c. the silks which were produced during that period, yielding a net profit of £117,450. In 1793, 1796, and 1797 there were losses; during this period the silks were gradually approaching to that degree of excellence to which they have ultimately arrived. In the six years, 1798 to 1803 inclusive, it appears by the above statement, that the silk, which amounted in prime cost and charges to £1,425,466, produced at the Company's sales £1,967,985, leaving a net profit of £542,519, on an average £90,419 16s. 4d. per annum.

The following is a statement of the value of raw silk exported from Bengal, exclusive of the East India Company's, in the years 1795–6 to 1805–6 inclusive.

1795–6	Sicca Rupees 5,81,183	1801–2	Sicca Rupees 13,65,882
1796–7	3,40,975	1802–3	16,38,467
1797–8	6,12,233	1803–4	19,10,398
1798–9	6,67,300	1804–5	33,82,000
1799–1800	14,33,751	1805–6	30,86,491
1800–1	10,51,957		

Forming a total in 11 years of 160,70,657, of which only 40,13,177 Sicca rupees was exported to London; the remainder to the Coasts of Coromandel and Malabar, the Gulfs of Arabia and Persia, and a small portion to Pulo Pinang and places to the eastward.

1810. Previous to the year 1801, the private imports of raw silk from Bengal were very trifling, nor were they much extended in the two succeeding years; but the whole is brought into one point of view by the following account of the raw silk imported from Bengal on account of the East India Company, and that imported by individuals in private trade and privilege, and sold at the Company's sales, in the years 1801 to 1810 inclusive; together with the sale amount of each, and the average price per pound at each of the Company's sales during the same period.

Years.	COMPANY'S SILK.			PRIVILEGE TRADE.			TOTAL.	
	Quantity.	Sale Amount	Average.	Quantity.	Sale Amount	Average.	Quantity sold.	Sale Amount.
	Small lbs.	£	£ s. d.	Small lbs.	£	£ s. d.	Small lbs.	£
M. S. 1801	193,569	162,332	0 19 0	39,234	30,294	0 15 5	444,862	382,638
S. S. ——	210,467	188,688	0 17 11	1,592	1,324	0 16 7		
M. S. 1802	142,083	147,544	1 0 9	24,120	26,626	1 2 1	244,809	265,382
S. S. ——	86,932	80,250	1 4 0	11,674	10,962	0 18 9		
M. S. 1803	118,661	112,834	0 19 1	20,571	17,484	0 17 0	324,764	311,791
S. S. ——	137,199	142,830	1 0 10	48,333	38,643	0 16 0		
M. S. 1804	164,705	163,533	0 19 10	129,824	71,899	0 11 2	565,494	473,057
S. S. ——	195,066	184,073	0 18 10	75,990	53,552	0 14 1		
M. S. 1805	42,255	45,534	1 1 8	70,648	44,228	0 12 6	267,900	227,409
S. S. ——	154,977	137,647	0 17 10	——	——	——		
M. S. 1806	54,271	47,149	0 17 4	167,894	125,398	0 14 11	504,281	372,126
S. S. ——	87,454	72,907	0 16 8	194,662	126,672	0 13 0		
M. S. 1807	156,516	99,695	0 12 8	113,729	75,339	0 13 3	666,904	463,609
S. S. ——	170,235	110,884	0 13 0	226,424	177,671	0 15 8		
M. S. 1808	146,012	181,584	1 4 10	57,701	91,397	1 11 8	423,668	564,561
S. S. ——	184,138	244,791	1 6 7	35,817	46,789	1 6 1		
M. S. 1809	172,734	250,208	1 8 11	47,398	67,272	1 8 3	303,855	444,010
S. S. ——	58,632	90,589	1 10 11	25,091	35,941	1 8 7		
M. S. 1810	——	——	——	52,987	82,929	1 11 4	306,535	444,939
S. S. ——	162,885	237,746	1 9 2	90,663	124,264	1 7 5		

From the foregoing statements some idea may be formed of the profit which has attached to the trade in raw silk, as carried on by individuals from Bengal; taking the exports from Bengal of six years, 1800–1 to 1805–6 inclusive, as the prime cost, and which amounted to Sicca rupees 35,59,269, which at 2s. 6d. per rupee, is ..... £444,908 12s. 6d.

The sales of privilege and private trade silk in the six years, 1801 to 1806, was 547,082 0 0

Leaving an apparent profit in the period of six years, of £102,173 7 6

From which are to be deducted the freight, amounting to about 3 per cent., the premiums of insurance, commission, fees of office, &c. It must, however, be observed that the above period includes the years in which the silk trade was very much depressed, and when much of the silk imported by individuals turned out very inferior to the Company's, being badly worked, foul, and gouty, and partaking largely of those defects for which Bengal silk was formerly so much reprobated.

From the foregoing accounts it appears that in the thirty-five years, 1776 to 1810 inclusive, the sale amount of the raw silk imported from Bengal into Great Britain, on account of the East India Company, in the private trade of the commanders and officers of their ships, and in the privilege tonnage allowed to individuals by the Act of 1793, was as follows:

In 10 years, 1776 to 1785 inclusive	£3,440,757
In 18 years, 1786 to 1803 inclusive	5,221,596
In 7 years, 1804 to 1810 inclusive	3,115,044
Forming a total in thirty-five years, of	£11,786,397

exclusive of prize and neutral property, which has been to a very trifling extent, in the years 1793 to 1810 amounting to only £6,455.

The following is an account of the value of the raw and thrown silk imported into Great Britain, exclusive of East India and China silk, in the years ending 5th January, 1807–8–9; likewise of the value of the manufactured silk-goods, and raw and thrown silk exported during the same period, taken from the papers annually laid before the House of Commons.

	IMPORTED.	EXPORTED.		
	Raw and thrown Silk.	Silk Manufactures.	Raw and thrown Silk.	Total.
1807	£1,222,022	£833,035	£99,062	£932,097
1808	711,242	804,178	118,891	923,069
1809	343,901	473,078	67,053	540,131

It is impossible to ascertain, with any degree of correctness, the extent of the manufactured goods consumed in Great Britain; but from the general use of silk in every class of society, from the throne to the cottage, the quantity must be immense.

Owing to the unremitting care and attention that have been for years past given to raw silk, both at home and abroad, it has been progressively improving, and continues to improve in its quality. It has already attained a degree of perfection which it was formerly pronounced to be altogether incapable of reaching, and is perhaps susceptible of still further improvements under the vigilant and active superintendence of the Company.

The principal market which the English manufacturers have hitherto looked up to for a very large proportion of this important raw material, has been Italy. In the present state of Continental affairs, it is impossible to calculate upon events. Circumstances may arise, and recourse may be had to measures, the direct operation of which might tend to check or impede the supplies which have hitherto been drawn from that quarter. In this view of things, Bengal raw silk has a claim not only to commercial, but to great political consideration. The deep-rooted prejudices that formerly prevailed against it, are daily vanishing, and the article is proportionably rising in the public esteem; but it is evident that its future success will altogether depend upon the degree of attention that shall continue to be paid to its quality. If there shall be the least relaxation on this important point, the character to which it has arrived by slow gradations, will at once be lost; and the flattering hopes which the Company have been looking to, of retrieving the heavy sums which have been sunk in bringing it to its present state of perfection, will be annihilated.

The consumption of raw silk will always depend upon the prevailing fashion of the day, as it regards the articles of attire. There is no standard for dress; it entirely depends upon fancy, than which nothing can be more capricious. As long as the silk fabrics maintain their ground in the public estimation, the demand which at present exists for raw silk, may be looked to with a degree of confidence, and the price will probably be subject to variation only in proportion as the imports from Italy and Bengal, when taken together, shall be found to be more or less proportioned to the expenditure. The imports are likewise

subject to fluctuation, as the seasons shall prove favourable, or otherwise, to its production. It appears that the manufacturers are less solicitous about prices than a steady, constant, and uniform supply; and they offer, in support of these sentiments, strong and decisive arguments: they allege that when the price of the raw material is low, the public receive the benefit in the reduction that is made on the price of the fabrics; and when the prices are once brought down, it is with difficulty, under a change of circumstances, they can be again advanced.

The legislature have upon all occasions shewn a more than common solicitude to promote and extend the silk trade, as a great national object. It has been shielded by the prohibition of such manufactures as interfered with it; it has been cherished by bounties; it has, in short, been encouraged by the adoption of every measure that experience could suggest for its advancement and improvement. And the emigration of the manufacturers, and the exportation of the machinery used in every branch of the manufacture, has been guarded against by the following statutes:

5th Geo. I. chap. 27. "If any subject, being such artificer or manufacturer, shall go into any country out of His Majesty's dominions, to exercise or teach any of the said manufactures to foreigners; or if any subject shall be in any such foreign country, and shall not return in six months after warning given him by the Ambassador, Minister, or Consul, or person authorized by him, or by the Secretary of State, and thenceforth continually inhabit within this realm, he shall be incapable of any legacy, or of being executor or administrator, or taking any lands by descent, devise, or purchase, and shall forfeit his lands and goods, and be deemed an alien, and out of the King's protection."

And by the 23d Geo. II. chap. 13. "If any person shall contract with, or endeavour to seduce any artificer in the manufactories of Great Britain, to go into any foreign service, not belonging to the Crown of Great Britain, he shall, for every such person, forfeit £500, and be imprisoned in the common gaol twelve months, and until the fine be paid; and for the second, or any subsequent offence, he shall forfeit £1000, and be imprisoned two years, and until payment.

By the 23d Geo. II. chap. 13. "If any person shall put on board any vessel, not bound directly to some of the British dominions, any tools or utensils, or part thereof, proper for the woollen or silk manufactories, he shall forfeit for the same two hundred pounds."

There are many other statutes to the same effect, and in several of them a penalty of £200 upon Captains of ships, and others, who shall assist in this clandestine traffic, or knowingly convey any tools, implements, models, &c. of any art or manufacture, out of the kingdom.

By the 14th Geo. III. chap. 71. "If these tools, implements, &c. are on board a ship belonging to His Majesty, the Captain forfeits two hundred pounds, and his commission."

By the same statute persons collecting tools, &c. for the purpose of sending them abroad, are liable to a penalty of £200, &c. Artisans attempting to leave the kingdom, may be held to bail till the assizes or sessions; then to be dealt with according to law.

Thus fostered and protected, the silk trade has in its progress proved highly beneficial to thousands of industrious individuals, and afforded advantages to the State which are incalculable; and although it has occasionally been, and will probably continue to be, subject to fluctuation, from the exigencies of the times, or the caprice of fashion, yet, upon the whole, raw silk will ever sustain a most distinguished rank among the commodities which contribute to the industry and prosperity of the state.

10 cwt. of raw silk are allowed to a ton. The present duties on East India silks are as follow:

Knubs, or husks of silk, per lb.	permanent duty	2s. 6d.	temporary duty	0s. 10d.	total 3s. 4d.
Raw silk of Bengal, ditto		3s. 0d.	ditto	1s. 0d.	ditto 4s. 0d.
Of any other sort		4s. 3d.	ditto	1s. 5d.	ditto 5s. 8d.
Waste silk		2s. 6d.	ditto	0s. 10d.	ditto 3s. 4d.

SKINS.

The skins of tigers and leopards are occasionally brought from India, but not in any quantities as articles of trade, but as curiosities, and are used as hammer-cloths for carriages, &c.

Tiger Skins should be chosen large, of a bright yellow coloured ground, beautifully marked with numerous broad black stripes; the more intense the yellow, and well defined the black stripes are, the more these skins are esteemed. Particular care should be taken that they are well dried, or they will soon decay. They are sometimes met with near four feet long, including the tail.

Leopard Skins.—These skins are much esteemed in Europe. They are smaller than the former, seldom exceeding four feet in length, including the tail. They should be chosen large, of a lively yellow colour, marked on the back and sides with small spots disposed in circles, well defined, and closely together, the belly covered with longish white hairs, and the spots on the tail large and oblong.

The skins of many other animals are occasionally imported as curiosities. The duties on the various kinds brought from the East Indies are as follow:

		Permanent Duty.			War Duty.		
Calves' skins in the hair, not tanned, tawed, or in any way dressed	per dozen skins	0	1	3	0	0	5
Dog skins, ditto	ditto	0	0	6	0	0	2
Elk skins, ditto	ditto	0	0	7½	0	0	2½
Hurse skins, undressed	each	0	0	3	0	0	1
Leopard skins, ditto	ditto	0	6	0	0	2	0
Martin skins, ditto	ditto	0	0	9	0	0	3
Seal skins in the hair, not tanned, tawed, or in any way dressed	ditto	0	0	1½	0	0	0½
Squirrel skins, undressed	per 100 skins	0	7	3	0	2	5
Tiger skins, ditto	each	0	6	0	0	2	0
Skins and furs, or pieces of skins and furs, raw or undressed, not being before enumerated, or otherwise charged with duty	per cent.	37	10	0	12	10	0
Ditto, ditto, tanned, tawed, or in any way dressed, not being before enumerated, or otherwise charged with duty,	ditto	90	0	0	30	0	0

SPIKENARD,

Or Nardus Indica, as brought to Europe, is a congeries of small, tough, reddish brown fibres, forming a bunch about the size of a finger; it is moderately warm and pungent, accompanied with a flavour not disagreeable. It is described as growing in wild and uncultivated countries, and is the common grass which covers the surface of it, growing in large tufts close to each other, very rank, and in general from three to four feet long. The whole plant has a strong aromatic odour; but both the smell and the virtues reside principally in the husky roots, or lower parts of the stalks, which in chewing have a bitter, warm, pungent taste, accompanied with some degree of that kind of glow in the mouth which cardamums occasion. Chuse such as are dry, of a yellowish red, or cinnamon colour, fresh, with long fibres, and a sweet scent. Those which are moist, and without fibres, should be rejected. It is seldom imported into England.

10 cwt. of spikenard are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is 1s. 9d. per lb. and the temporary or war duty, 7d. making in the whole 2s. 4d. per lb.

STORAX.

Solid storax is the odoriferous resin of a tree of a middling size, bearing a filbert like fruit, growing common in various parts of India. Two sorts of this resin are distinguished: storax in the tear, and common storax in larger masses. The former is very rarely in separate tears; but generally in masses, composed of whitish and pale reddish brown tears, or having an uniform reddish yellow, or brownish appearance, being unctuous and soft like wax, and free from visible impurities. This is preferred to the common storax in large masses, which are lighter, and less compact than the preceding, and having a large admixture of woody matter, like saw-dust. Although the impurities of this kind of storax render it less valuable than the other, it is not less useful, nor its medical qualities, when purified, less potent: this is done by softening it with boiling water, and pressing out the impurities between warm iron plates; a process that is unnecessary with the former kind. Storax should be chosen of a reddish brown, rather softish, and unctuous to the touch, yet brittle and friable, and of a pleasant sweet smell.

This article is in little demand, and seldom imported from India. The permanent duty on storax in the tear is 5s. 3d. per lb. and the war duty 1s. 9d. making in the whole 7s. per lb. and on liquid storax 9d. per lb. permanent, and 3d. per lb. war duty, making in the whole 1s. per lb.

SUGAR.

A solid, sweet substance, obtained from the sugar-cane, which is common in the East and West Indies, China, South America, and various other places; or, according to chemists, an essential salt, capable of crystallization. It is of a sweet and agreeable flavour, and is contained in a greater or less degree in almost every species of vegetable, but most abundant in the sugar-cane. The expressed juice of the cane is clarified, and boiled down to a thick consistence; it is then removed from the fire, and the saccharine part concretes into brown coloured masses, and is the sugar in its raw state, as we see it.

The sugar-cane is a smooth jointed reed, of a shining greenish colour, which, as the plant approaches to maturity, changes by degrees to a yellowish one. The sizes of the canes vary much, according to the soil, season, and circumstances; the usual height is from four to seven feet, the thickness of a middling sized cane, about an inch, the largest three or four inches, and the small ones not more than half an inch. The distance of the knots are no less various than the height; in some not above two inches, in others nine or ten; those canes which have the knots farthest apart, are esteemed the best.

The saccharine juice is contained in a spongy pith which the inside of the cane is filled with. The pith of the smooth part of the cane is soft, and of a whitish colour; that of the joints harder, more compact, and darker coloured. The first is by much the more juicy; but the juice of the latter is sweetest, and seems to be most perfectly elaborated.

The maturity, or degree of perfection, of the cane is not to be judged of from its age or size alone, but chiefly from the quality of the juice. If this has a rich, glutinous, sweet taste, and if at the same time the cane be weighty, and of a good yellow colour; if the skin is smooth, dry, and easily breaks, the pith of a grey colour, or inclining a little to brown, the plant, in these circumstances, may be said to be in its utmost perfection, and will yield a very fine sugar, in large quantities, and with very little trouble.

As the sugar-cane is the principal production of the West Indies, and the great source of their riches—as it is so important in a commercial point of view, from the employment which it gives to seamen, and the wealth which it opens for merchants—and, besides, as it is now become a necessary of life, it may be justly esteemed one of the most valuable plants in the world. The quantity consumed in Europe alone, is esti-

mated at nine millions sterling; and the demand would probably be greater, if it could be sold at a reduced price. Since, then, sugar is reckoned so valuable a commodity, it must be an object of desire to all persons of curiosity and research, to obtain some general knowledge of the rise and progress of the trade.

RISE AND PROGRESS OF THE TRADE IN SUGAR.

The use of sugar is of very high antiquity: the "sweet cane" is mentioned in several places of scripture as an article of merchandise, and is always spoken of as coming from a far country.

The conquests of Alexander seem to have opened the discovery of it to the western parts of the world. Nearchus, his Admiral, 325 B. C. found the sugar-cane in the East Indies, as appears from his account of it quoted by Strabo. It is not, however, clear, from what he says, that any art was used in bringing the juice of the cane to the consistence of sugar. Theophrastus, who lived not long after, seems to have had some knowledge of sugar, at least of the cane from which it is prepared. In enumerating the different kinds of honey, he mentions one that is found in reeds, which must have been meant of some of those kinds which produce sugar. Eratosthenes, 223 B. C. also is quoted by Strabo as speaking of the roots of large reeds found in India, which were sweet to the taste, both when raw and when boiled. The next author, in point of time, that makes mention of sugar, is Varro, 68 B. C. who, in a fragment quoted by Isidorus, evidently alludes to this substance. He describes it as a fluid pressed out from reeds of a large size, which was sweeter than honey. Dioscorides, 35 B. C. speaking of the different kinds of honey, says that "there is a kind of it in a concrete state, called saccharon, which is found in reeds in India and Arabia Felix. "This," he adds, "has the appearance of salt, and, like that, is brittle when chewed." Galen appears to have been well acquainted with sugar, which he describes as a kind of honey, called sacchar, that came from India and Arabia Felix, concreted in reeds. If the third book of Galen "Upon Medicines that may be easily procured," be genuine, there is reason to think that sugar was not at that period a scarce article, as it is frequently prescribed.

Lucan, A. D. 65, alludes to sugar in his third book, where he speaks of the sweet juices expressed from reeds, which were drank by the people of India. Pliny, A. D. 77, was better acquainted with this substance, which he calls by the name of saccharon, and says that it was brought from Arabia and India, but the best from the latter country. He describes it as a kind of honey obtained from reeds of a white colour, resembling gum, and brittle when pressed by the teeth, and found in pieces of the size of a hazel-nut. Arrian, A. D. 145, in his "Periplus of the Red Sea," speaks of the honey from reeds, called sacchar, as one of the articles of the trade between Hither India and the ports in the Red Sea. Elian, A. D. 145, in his Natural History, speaks of a kind of honey, which was pressed from reeds that grew among the Prasii, a people that lived near the Ganges. Alexander Aphrodisæus, A. D. 212, appears to have been acquainted with sugar, which was in his time regarded as an Indian production. He says "that what the Indians call sugar, was a concretion of honey in reeds, resembling grains of salt of a white colour, and brittle." Achmet, a writer, who, according to some, lived about the year 830, speaks familiarly of sugar as common in his time.

It does not appear that any of the above-mentioned writers knew the method of preparing sugar, by boiling down the juice of the reeds to a consistence. The next mention of sugar is by the historians of the Crusades; one of the authors, in 1100, says, that the Crusaders found in Syria certain reeds called cannameles, of which it was reported a kind of wild honey was made, but does not say that he saw any so manufactured. Another author, in 1108, says, about the same period, "The Crusaders found sweet-honeyed reeds in great quantity, in the meadows about Tripoli, in Syria, which reeds were called sucra: these they sucked, and were much pleased with the sweet taste of them, with which they could scarcely

be satisfied. This plant is cultivated with great labour of the husbandmen every year. At the time of harvest they bruise it, when ripe, in mortars, and set by the strained juice in vessels till it is concreted in the form of snow, or of white salt." The same author, in another place, mentions eleven camels laden with sugar having been taken by the Crusaders; so that it must have been made in considerable quantity. Vitrinco mentions, in 1124, that "in Syria reeds grow that are full of honey, by which he understands a sweet juice, which, by the pressure of a screw-engine, and concreted by fire, becomes sugar." This appears the first account of the employment of heat or fire in the making of sugar. About the same period sugar is stated as being made in the neighbourhood of Tyre, and sent from thence to the farthest parts of the world. Marco Paulo, who travelled into the East about 1250, found sugar in abundance in Bengal. Sanutus, who flourished in 1300, mentions that, in the countries subject to the Sultan, sugar was produced in large quantities; and that it was likewise made in Cyprus, Rhodes, Amorea, Sicily, and other places belonging to the Christians. When sugar was first introduced into England, it is difficult to ascertain; but the art of refining it must at this period have been known. At this time, as it appears by the accounts of the Chamberlain of Scotland, in 1329, loaves of sugar were sold in Scotland at above an ounce of standard silver by the pound.

Hugo Falcandus, an author who wrote about the time of the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa, speaks of sugar being in his time produced in great quantities in Sicily. It appears to have been used in two states; one when the juice was boiled down to the consistence of honey, and another when it was boiled further, so as to form a solid body of sugar.

The Spaniards carried the cultivation and manufacture of the sugar-cane to the Canary Islands in the 15th century; but prior to this period the Portuguese, about 1420, carried it from Sicily to Madeira and to St. Thomas's Island. In 1506, according to Herrera, the cane was carried from the Canary Islands to Hispaniola, or St. Domingo, where sugar was extracted from it. The Dutch first established sugar-works in the Brazils in 1580; but on being expelled from these by the Portuguese, they in 1655 carried the art of planting the cane, and making sugar in a proper way, to the West Indies. Sugar was made at Barbadoes by the English in 1643; but when Ligon arrived there in 1647, it was of so inferior a kind, as to be hardly worth sending to England. Previous to his departure in 1650, it had improved considerably, but was not equal to that manufactured in Brazil. In 1643 the English began to make sugar at St. Christopher's, and the French soon after. In 1648 the latter made it at Guadaloupe. The English did not make it at Jamaica till 1664, on the reduction of that Island by them, the Spaniards had only three small plantations on it. Since that period it has spread over most of the West India Islands.

It has been asserted that the sugar-cane is not a native of America, but that it migrated through the Europeans from Sicily to Madeira and the Canary Islands, and afterwards to the West Indies, and to Mexico, Peru, and Brazil. On the discovery of the western hemisphere, however, the sugar-cane was found upon the Continent, and in some of the islands; but the art of making sugar it is said was never practised by the natives of South America. The sugar-cane was found growing near the mouth of the Mississippi when the Europeans first visited that part of America. Hennepin, who was there in 1680, says that the banks of that river were full of canes. Ximenes, Hernandez, and Piso all affirm that the sugar grew spontaneously near the Rio de la Plata. Jean de Lery, who visited Rio de Janeiro in 1556, states he found that every where near that river abundance of sugar-canes; and, according to Labat, the first settlers in St. Christopher's, Martinique, and Guadaloupe found the cane wild in different parts of those islands. America therefore appears to have possessed the plant, but had not found out the art of cultivating it, and manufacturing it into sugar, till visited by Europeans.

The success that attended the labours of the first British planters was such as amply rewarded them for

their perseverance and industry. In 1670, Sir Josiah Child says, "We have already beat their Muscovado and Paneal sugars quite out of England, and their whites we have brought down in all these parts of Europe, in prices from £7 and £8 per cwt. to £2 10s. and £3, and we have also much lessened their quantities; for whereas formerly their Brazil fleets brought 100 to 120,000 chests of sugar, they are now reduced to about 30,000 chests since the great increase of Barbadoes." By thus underselling the Portuguese, they soon laid the foundation of a flourishing trade, which at first was open to all nations; but upon the restoration of King Charles II. the Legislature observing the detriment that accrued to this country from such open trade, it was by the several acts of navigation restricted to British subjects. In consequence of these restrictions, the ports of London and Bristol soon after became the grand magazine of sugar for the supply of all the north and middle parts of Europe: and this export trade the English enjoyed, to the great benefit both of the nation and its colonies, until the French, in their turn, so greatly improved their sugar islands, as to be able to undersell us in most parts of Europe.

It appears that the East India Company, between the years 1664 and 1671, imported about 150 tons of sugar from Bantam and Benjar Massin, where they then had settlements, as also from Mausulipatam, on the Coast of Coromandel; the cost of which, upon the average, was about 16s. per cwt. The freight at that time was 20s. and the duty 4s. making in the whole about 40s. per cwt. and the price it sold at was from 42s. 6d. to 52s. the cwt. which yielded a tolerable profit.

Before the French became our rivals in the foreign markets, the value of the commodities imported into England from the West India Islands (chief of which was sugar) had arisen to £1,500,000, of which nearly one-third part was exported.

The following is an account of the quantity of British plantation sugar imported into Great Britain in the years 1700 to 1729 inclusive; likewise the value of the West India imports during the same period, and the quantities of raw and refined sugar exported.

	IMPORTED.	EXPORTED.		
Average of ten Years.	Raw Sugar.	Raw Sugar.	Refined Sugar.	Value of Imports.
1700 to 1709 inclusive	377,758 cwt.	101,150 cwt.	3,397 cwt.	£702,560
1710 to 1719 ditto	549,021 cwt.	154,984 cwt.	5,536 cwt.	900,645
1720 to 1729 ditto	734,329 cwt.	122,179 cwt.	9,083 cwt.	1,075,062

It was about this period that the French, jealous of the growing prosperity of England, first began to plan and carry into execution those measures which were, in the end, the means of aggrandizing their own Colonies, and, as has been already noticed, of depriving us of the foreign markets.

In the under-mentioned years the imports into, and exports of sugar from England, and the value of imports from the West Indies, were as follow:

	IMPORTED.	EXPORTED.		
Average of ten Years.	Raw Sugar.	Raw Sugar.	Refined Sugar.	Value of Imports.
1730 to 1739 inclusive	851,011 cwt.	81,476 cwt.	16,959 cwt.	£1,382,955
1740 to 1749 ditto	787,702 cwt.	88,190 cwt.	17,455 cwt.	1,266,607

In this short space of time the French had made such almost incredible improvements, that the island of St. Domingo, which in 1726 was estimated to contain only 200 plantations, making, one with another, 2,000 cwt. of sugar each, or 400,000 cwt. was in 1742 stated to produce 848,000 cwt. The islands of Martinique, Guadeloupe, and the other lesser isles were also stated at 622,500 cwt. making in the whole 1,470,500 cwt. of which it was supposed 960,000 cwt. were exported to Holland, Spain, Hamburgh, and other foreign markets.

The British islands were in the same year stated to have imported into Great Britain 60,950 hhds. of 12 cwt. each, and 5,000 were shipped to the northern Colonies and foreign markets, making in the whole 65,950 hhds. or 791,400 cwt. Of the 60,950 hhds. imported into Great Britain, there were exported to Ireland and other markets 5236, leaving for home consumption 55,714 hhds. or about 668,568 cwt. by which it appears that the French islands produced in this year nearly double the quantity of sugar that those of Great Britain did. It was, nevertheless, allowed that the British West India Islands in time of profound peace (England being in 1742 at war with Spain), might produce 75,000 hhds. of which 70,000 might be consumed in England, which, at £15 each, amount to £1,050,000; so that it appears the French had increased their produce from 30 to 120,000 hhds. while England had only increased from about 45 to 75,000 hhds.

It was about this period computed that the Portuguese in Brazil produced 67,600 chests of sugar of 12 cwt. each, in all 811,200 cwt. of which a considerable part was sent to Spain and to various ports in the Mediterranean, Holland, and Hamburgh. The Dutch were said to raise from 30 to 40,000 hhds. annually at Surinam, exclusive of what they imported from Berbice, St. Eustatius, Curaçoa, and Batavia.

The declension, however, of the amount of the imports from our British West Indies soon assumed another appearance; and from the following accounts it will be seen that, notwithstanding the loss of the foreign markets, the islands have been in a state of progressive improvement; and there is the strongest reason to believe the French islands have been equally successful, and that this has not proceeded from either nation having made inroads upon the commerce of the other, but from the increased demand for West India commodities as well in Great Britain as in every part of Europe.

In the under-mentioned periods the imports and exports of sugar, and the total value of imports into Great Britain, appear to have been as follow:

	IMPORTED.	EXPORTED.		
Average of ten Years.	Raw Sugar.	Raw Sugar.	Refined Sugar.	Value of Imports.
1750 to 1759 inclusive	1,036,972 cwt.	106,883 cwt.	31,274 cwt.	£1,684,144
1760 to 1769 ditto	1,499,618 cwt.	240,151 cwt.	78,513 cwt.	2,344,425
1770 to 1779 ditto	1,718,500 cwt.	205,729 cwt.	48,384 cwt.	3,086,355
1780	1,394,559 cwt.	118,554 cwt.	38,323 cwt.	2,612,236

The foregoing sums include the whole of the West India products; and as value is rather an uncertain method of determining in respect to the quantity of a commodity, the price of which is subject to fluctuation, the account of the quantities imported and exported must be taken, to form an idea of the rise and progress of the commerce in the article.

The state of St. Domingo in 1742 has already been pointed out. It further appears, by an account published in France in 1770, that island yielded 1,600,000 cwt. of sugar. The amount of sugar entered for exportation from this colony, in the years 1783 to 1789 inclusive, was as follows:

	Sugar clayed.	Muscovado Sugar.	Total.
1783	77,339,113 lbs.	44,312,919 lbs.	121,652,032 lbs.
1784	65,053,050	77,344,464	142,397,514
1785	66,589,357	83,610,521	150,199,878
1786	71,063,697	61,887,814	132,951,511
1787	56,182,403	72,896,676	129,079,079
1788	70,227,709	93,177,512	163,405,221
1789	47,516,531	91,899,963	139,416,494

Those weights are heavier than the English by 8 per cent. They are also only the quantities that paid the export duty. The produce may therefore be considered superior to this, as a consider-

able clandestine trade was carried on with America. What the rest of the French islands produced during the same period, cannot be ascertained; but it was generally considered in France, that St. Domingo yielded about two-thirds of all their West India produce.

At this period the sugar trade of Europe was beginning to be deranged, and soon after, a most extraordinary and unlooked-for convulsion took place; the most productive of all the West India Islands, St. Domingo, began to be ravaged by civil commotions, and most of its principal plantations were destroyed. This calamity did not affect France only—its influence was also felt in Great Britain; the several Continental markets that were furnished by France, and even France herself, looked towards Great Britain for a supply. This created a vast foreign trade, from which circumstance the price of sugar was at such an exorbitant rate of cost, as to be seriously felt by the lower and middle orders of the community. Raw sugar from the West Indies, of the lowest description of quality, was at 81s. per cwt. which is equal to nine-pence per lb. at the first hand. The East India Company, from these considerations, as well as from having been publicly called upon to lend their assistance towards effecting a reduction of the price of sugar, gave every encouragement to the importation of it from the East Indies; and the vigorous efforts they made to relieve the public necessity, increased the cultivation of the sugar-cane in India to an amazing degree, and secured to the Bengal provinces a participation in this important article of trade.

The Legislature also, with a view of guarding against the excessive exportation of this necessary of life, passed a law, regulating it somewhat upon the same principles with those on which the exportation of corn is regulated. The Clerk of the Grocers' Company is required to obtain an account of the quantities and prices of sugar sold in London every week from the importers (who are directed to give in the same upon oath), and to publish the average price of the week in the London Gazette; and also to publish in the months of February, June, and October, an average of the prices during the preceding six weeks. It was enacted that if the average price of Muscovado sugar in July, 1792, should exceed 60s. or in October, 1792, should exceed 55s. or thereafter should exceed 50s. per cwt. exclusive of duties, the drawback allowed upon the exportation of refined sugar should be discontinued, till lower prices should again render the allowance of them expedient.

In 1807 a Committee of the House of Commons was appointed to consider the state of the West India trade, and to ascertain how far the use of sugar in the distilleries would relieve the depression under which it at that period laboured. The following extract from their report will shew the enormous expences attendant on the present system of cultivation in the West Indies:—

"The price of sugar has greatly diminished since the year 1799. The average price of 1800 was 65s. of 1807, 34s. per cwt. both exclusive of duty. In consequence of that depreciation, and of the increased expence attendant on the cultivation of the article, the situation of the sugar planter has been rapidly declining, till at length the value of the produce is on an average barely equal to the charges of production, leaving no rent for the land, and no interest for the large capital employed in it.

"The average charge on every hundred weight of sugar shipped from our West India Colonies, over and above any amount received from rum, including every annual contingent expence attending the estate upon which it is raised, but exclusive of any charge for the purchase of negroes, for the waste, or interest of capital, exclusive also of all the mercantile charges which take place after the shipment of the sugar, and of any return, or compensation, for the capital embarked in the estate, appears to be, in Jamaica, 21s. 6d. per cwt.; and in the Leeward Islands, in no case, upon an average, below 20s. and in many cases much more. The average mercantile charges upon every hundred weight of British Colony sugar shipped from the West Indies, including the average rate of freight, insurance, port and sale charges, and mercantile commission, are 16s. per cwt. from Jamaica, and 15s. 6d. from the Leeward Islands. The duty is 27s. per cwt.; consequently the whole charge attaching upon the hundred weight of sugar, including the expences of its growth and manufacture in the island, its transport from thence, the duty and mercantile charges upon it, when brought

for sale to the Port of London, is £3 4s. 6d. on Jamaica sugar, and £3 2s. 6d. on the sugar from the Leeward Islands, at the lowest average. The average prices of sugar in the London market, as they appear in the London Gazette, for the four months preceding the 5th of January, 1807, were, exclusive of duty, 40s. 7½d. per cwt.; for the three months preceding the same period, 39s. 5½d. per cwt.; and for the week preceding the 31st of December, 1807, 38s. 11d. per cwt. On reference to the quantities sold at the respective prices for the last three months, it appears that 55,085 cwt. have been sold from 42s. to 60s. per cwt.; 315,977 cwt. from 60s. to 70s. and 86,156 cwt. from 70s. to 88s. per cwt. The result of this account confirms the evidence before the Committee, which states the present demand to be chiefly for the stronger and high priced sugars, leaving the market glutted with those of lower price and inferior quality.

The following is an account of the average annual importation of raw sugar into Great Britain and Ireland, in the years 1781 to 1808 inclusive; likewise the annual exportation, after reducing the refined sugar into raw, on the principle of 34 to 20; and the balance remaining for home consumption.

	ANNUAL AVERAGE IMPORTATION.			Average annual Exportation to Foreign Parts.	Balance remaining for Home Consumption.
	Great Britain.	Ireland.	Total.		
	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.
5 years, 1781 to 1785 inclusive	1,579,537	——	1,579,537	157,513	1,422,024
5 years, 1786 to 1790 ditto	1,884,990	——	1,884,990	158,504	1,726,486
5 years, 1791 to 1795 ditto	2,133,250	——	2,133,250	531,160	1,602,090
5 years, 1796 to 1800 ditto	2,727,100	——	2,727,100	790,546	1,936,554
Year ending Jan. 5th, 1801	3,976,554	——	3,976,554	1,080,158	2,896,396
2 years, 1802-3 inclusive ..	3,741,486	171,224	3,912,710	1,704,424	2,208,286
4 years, 1804 to 1807 inclusive	3,473,488	135,390	3,608,878	972,220	2,636,658
1 year ending Jan. 5, 1808..	3,651,686	——	3,651,686	1,130,534	2,521,152

The preceding statement shews that the quantity of sugar annually consumed in Great Britain and Ireland, upon an average of four years, ending with 1807 inclusive, was.....Cwt. 2,636,658
And that the average export from the United Empire, during the same period, was 972,220

The following calculation shews the increased consumption of sugar in the British empire within the last twenty-two years, 1785 to 1807; also a comparative statement of the actual production of the British Colonies with British consumption, and of the surplus production of the British Colonies, with the demand for sugar at the British market for the use of the Continent, during the short interval of peace.

Annual consumption of sugar in Great Britain and Ireland, on an average of five years, ending with 1785..... Cwt.	1,422,024
Ditto, upon an average of four years, ending with 1807	2,636,658
Increased consumption..... Cwt.	1,214,634
The average annual import, 1804-5-6 and 7, into the United Empire, was.....	3,608,878
Deduct import from conquered Colonies, supposing that of 1807 to be an average, which was ...	581,881
Average annual import from the old British Colonies ..... Cwt.	3,026,997
Average annual consumption of Great Britain and Ireland for the above period.....	2,636,658
Annual surplus above consumption from our own Colonies ..... Cwt.	390,339
Average annual export, during two years of peace, 1802-3.....	1,702,758
Average annual superfluity of old British Colonies, as above.....	390,339
Which shews the insufficiency of the present surplus produce of the old British Colonies to meet a Continental demand equal to that of the last peace, to be..... Cwt.	1,312,419

"The Committee conclude by pressing upon the consideration of the House, the severe loss that must be felt by the empire at large, and no part of it more than the landed interest, if some efficient remedy should not save the West India Colonies from the disasters that await them, when it is recollected that this country derives from them a net revenue on sugar of £3,000,000 annually, besides the duties on the other articles of their produce; that they take off manufactures and produce of this country to the amount of £6,000,000 sterling; to which considerations must be added the shipping they employ, the seamen bred in the trade, &c."

Besides the loss and disadvantage to which the West India planter is exposed by the enormous expences attending the present system of cultivation, there are other considerations affecting deeply the commercial and political interests of the British empire. In a memorial and petition from the House of Assembly at Jamaica, presented to the House of Commons, it is stated, as a fact well established, that the necessities of the said Islands cannot be supplied in any degree adequate to their wants, except from the United States. If this representation be just, the British West India Islands are indeed in a miserable state of dependence on America; they exist only at the pleasure of a power on whose friendly disposition towards us recent events have too well shewn little reliance is to be placed, and who apparently want nothing but the power to rob us of that commerce which forms so valuable a source of our wealth and power.

The following is an account of the value of sugar imported and exported in the years 1807-8-9.

	IMPORTED.	EXPORTED.		
	Raw Sugar.	Raw Sugar.	Refined Sugar.	Total Value.
1807	£6,734,139	£610,249	£1,250,428	£1,860,677
1808	6,283,321	1,307,231	1,296,939	2,604,170
1809	6,580,638	716,961	1,025,251	1,742,212

The duties collected, the bounties and drawbacks allowed on exportation, and the net produce of the customs and excise on sugar, in three years, were as follow:

	Gross Duties.	Drawbacks, &c.	Net Produce.
1805	£3,564,439	£1,124,644	£2,439,795
1806	4,237,911	1,140,321	3,097,590
1807	4,715,506	1,686,022	3,029,484

Having thus stated, from the best materials we have been enabled to collect, the state of the sugar-trade in Europe, we now proceed to shew its situation in India, but are not able to carry the researches back to any distant period.

Sugar has been an article of trade in India from time immemorial. There is scarcely a district in Bengal where the cane does not flourish. It thrives best in Benares, Behar, Rungpore, Burdwan, Beerbhoom, and Midnapore. It is successfully cultivated in all; and there seem to be no other bounds to the possible production of sugar in Bengal than the limits of the demand and consequent vent for it. The growth, for home consumption, and for the trade with the interior and the other parts of India, is vast, and it only needs encouragement to equal the demand of Europe also.

The facility with which any extraordinary quantity of sugar can be supplied at Bengal, is not to be wondered at by any person at all conversant with India, as sugar is an article of consumption by every inhabitant of Bengal and the neighbouring provinces, forming a part of their diet, from the raw stage of it in the cane, to its being made up into sweetmeats and confections; and it is to be met with in every bazar in all the stages of its manufacture.

Sugar is cheaply produced, and frugally manufactured in Bengal. Raw sugar prepared in a mode peculiar to India, but analogous to the process of making Muscovado, costs not more than 5s. per cwt. An equal quantity of Muscovado sugar might be made at little more than this cost; whereas, in the British West Indies, it cannot be afforded for less than 20s. per cwt. So great a disproportion will cease to appear surprising, when the relative circumstances of the two countries are considered. Agriculture is conducted in India with the most frugal simplicity. The necessaries of life are cheaper than in any other commercial country, and cheaper in Bengal than in any other province of India. The simplest diet and most scanty clothing suffice to the cultivator, and the price of labour is consequently low. Every instrument used in tillage is proportionably cheap, and cattle are neither dear to the purchaser, nor expensive to the owner. The preparation of the sugar is equally simple, and devoid of expence. The manufacturer is unincumbered with costly works; his dwelling is a straw hut; his machinery and utensils consist of a mill constructed on the simplest plan, and a few earthen pots. In short, he requires little capital, and is fully rewarded with an inconsiderable advance on the first value of the cane.

The state of the sugar-trade in Bengal in 1776, will be seen by the following extracts from a letter from the merchants of Calcutta to Government:—"Formerly sugar was one of the staple articles of Bengal, and a considerable trade was carried on in it to Madras, the Malabar Coast, Bombay, Surat, Scindy, Muscat, the Persian Gulf, Mocha, and Judda. Even so late as the period immediately preceding the capture of Calcutta, in 1756, the annual exportation was about 50,000 maunds, which yielded a profit of about 50 per cent. and the returns for which were generally in specie; so that in the 20 years immediately preceding the capture, it may be estimated that there flowed into Bengal for this article no less than 60,00,000 rupees, which was all clear gain to the country, and of the most eligible kind, the production of the ground manufactured by the natives. And this flow was regular, always feeding, but never overcharging the circulation. During the last 20 years the price of sugar has been gradually increasing, and the exportation and growth diminishing in the same proportion, so that the price is now near 50 per cent. more than it was before that period. The charge of transportation is also greater; and the price at foreign markets not having risen in the same proportion, the export is so trifling and casual, that the sugar-trade of Bengal is in fact annihilated. It may be even doubted whether Bengal produces enough for its own consumption, since there is annually an importation from Benares, and of candied sugar from China, the amount of which will be found equal to that of the trifling export which yet continues.

"Supposing the recovery of this trade to be an object deserving attention, we submit to your consideration whether it be attainable by any other means than by encouraging Europeans, distinguished by their property, situation, and credit from ordinary adventurers, to undertake the cultivation and manufacture of sugar after the method practised in the West Indies, by grants of unoccupied lands and other reasonable privileges. We admit that much will depend on the conduct of the first undertakers; but with proper management on their part, and a reasonable support from Government, we think the success would be infallible, and that in a few years the natives would follow the new method, which would thence soon become general throughout the country, as the Italian mode of winding raw silk lately introduced, now is."

The Governor-General readily complied with the request preferred, and a grant of land was accordingly allotted, on which a sugar-plantation was afterwards set on foot; but after repeated experiments upon the soil, it was found so universally infested with white ants, that the Society were obliged to drop their scheme; and some other disappointments having also happened in the extensive undertakings of the same Society, they, after a time, separated, but not before they had, by purchasing canes from the neighbouring districts (for the evil of white ants is but partial, and prevails most in uncultivated lands), produced both refined sugar and rum; thus evidencing the practicability of their plan, though that mode of producing sugar, with other circumstances, made it inconvenient for them to persevere in it.

Such appears to have been the state of the sugar-trade in India in 1776; and it is a circumstance to be lamented that so laudable an undertaking for restoring this declining branch of commerce should have failed of success, as, no doubt, such failure operated very much to discourage others from embarking in similar pursuits. Between 1776 and 1790 there is no reason to conclude that this trade underwent any very material alteration; as in some observations addressed to the Governor-General by Mr. Bebb, then an active and intelligent Member of the Bengal Board of Trade (now one of the East India Directors), on the subject of extending the export of Bengal productions, in a letter under date July 9, 1790, he speaks of it as follows:

"'The material articles of export from Bengal are rice, sugar, raw silk, and silk piece-goods. Some of these articles are peculiar to Bengal; others are carried from other countries to Madras and Bombay, and rival those of Bengal. Among the articles thus rivalled, sugar is the most valuable; it is of so much importance, that the extending the export of it is of sufficient weight in itself to merit consideration. The Bombay market is supplied with sugar from China, Manilla, and Batavia, as well as from Bengal; all that can be purchased at Batavia by the Bombay merchants is eagerly bought; the vending or procuring a cargo of sugar is even considered a sort of favour conferred by the officers of the Dutch Government on the Bombay merchant. The Mahrattas, the great consumers of the sugar imported into Bombay, are said, however, to give a preference to Bengal sugar, if it be of the same or nearly the same price."

The plan by which Mr. Bebb proposed to effect an enlarged export of Bengal produce, was by taking off the duties levied on its importation into the other settlements. This he observes would give them a decided advantage over their rivals at those markets; and as the price would thereby be rendered much easier, it was reasonable to suppose that this would lead to an increased consumption.

In a letter to the Governor-General from the late A. Lambert, Esq. in September, 1790, accompanying samples of sugar and sugar-candy made from common Burdwan jaggery, he states,

"The first was clayed sugar, the produce of jaggery after once boiling, and produced from 4 to 10; that is, 100 maunds of jaggery yielded 40 maunds of sugar and 47½ maunds of molasses, losing one-eighth of the original material in the process.

"The second was loaf-sugar made of the same material twice boiled, which yields of this sugar a proportion of 1½ to 10, viz. 100 maunds of jaggery make 15 maunds of loaf-sugar, and leave 65 maunds of molasses, losing in the process of refining, one-fifth, or 20 maunds.

"The third is sugar-candy made also from jaggery after three boilings, and is obtained in the proportion of 1 to 10, leaving a residuum of seven-tenths, and losing two-tenths in the process; 100 maunds of jaggery giving 10 maunds of this sugar-candy, and 70 maunds of molasses, with a loss of 20 maunds in the refining. These specimens shew that the crude jaggery, as furnished by the Ryots in almost every part of Bengal, is capable of producing sugar and sugar-candy fully equal in quality to what is made in Europe, China, or Batavia."

At this time very excellent rum was made in Bengal; and it appears that, during the war, Bengal amply supplied the fleet and army with spirits, when they could be procured from no other part of India.

The duties on the importation of Bengal sugar into the other British possessions in India being done away, together with the anxious desire of many resident merchants to raise its quality, and reduce its price to such a standard as to make it an object of profitable export, gave great encouragement to the cultivators; and the quality of it was so much improved, that in 1791 it had become a staple with foreigners, and an export trade to Flanders and America was rising very fast. In November, 1790, the market was so well supplied, that the Company purchased 200 tons without difficulty, though there were at the same time seven foreign ships in the river loading with it. This demand, though unlooked for, had no visible effect upon the price; and it appeared that even at this period any quantity might have been procured.

The increasing consumption of sugar in Great Britain, owing, in a great measure, to the reduction of

the price of tea by the Commutation Act, and the increased demand for it abroad, in consequence of the deficiency of the French importation from St. Domingo, raised the price far above what it ever had been known since the extensive cultivation of it in the West Indies had brought it into general use. The advance in this necessary of life occasioned much clamour, and the public looked towards the East Indies for relief. In consequence of a requisition for that purpose, a Court of Proprietors of East India Stock met on the 15th of March, 1792, and passed several resolutions on the subject, the principal of which were:—

"That it appears to this Court that the present enormous price of sugar is owing to the annual importation of that article being very unequal to the increased consumption in Great Britain, and the demand for exportation.—That the East India Company, having been called upon by the public to assist them, have taken the subject into their most serious consideration, and are of opinion that they can speedily and permanently supply a considerable quantity of sugar for the relief of Great Britain, provided they are placed on the same footing with respect to duties and drawbacks as the West India planters.—That the present high duty of £37. 16s. 3d. per cent. on East India sugars, while the West India pay only 15s. per cwt. was purely accidental, and not fixed with any prohibitory view; sugar not having ranked among the Company's imports at the time of establishing the present tariff, as it was not even named, and can only now be received under the head of manufactured goods non-enumerated, at £37 16s. 3d. per cent. ad valorem.—That if the importation of East India sugar is not allowed (the present duty operating as a prohibition), the sugar trade, and the carrying trade attached to it, must inevitably be driven into the hands of foreigners, who have already sent, and are still sending, ships from various ports of Europe and America to India, to purchase that article.—That the Court be requested to lay these resolutions before the Lords of the Treasury, and to take such other steps as to them shall appear necessary, to obtain an equalization of duty."

The application to the Lords of the Treasury, to charge the Bengal sugar at the same rated duty as that fixed for sugar the produce of the British plantations, had not the desired effect. The East India Company, however, with a view of rendering all the assistance in their power to relieve the wants of the country, imported raw sugars from Bengal, of which the following is an account:—

Quantity laden in India, in the years 1791 to 1799 inclusive	Tons 29,807
The prime cost of which, including commercial charges, was	£713,200
The sale amount thereof, at their sales in London, was	1,670,832
The sale amount exceeded the prime cost, in the sum of	957,632

which sum may be considered as thus appropriated:—

Freight paid thereon to the owners of the shipping employed	£646,168
Charges of merchandise, estimated at 1s. per cwt.	28,436
Duties paid by the Company, exclusive of what was paid by purchasers	28,042
The balance may be considered as a profit to the Company, which was	254,986

To form an idea how far the importation of sugar from the East Indies answers the purpose of the merchant, the following statement of the Company's imports in the year 1798 will shew:

5,242 tons of sugar cost in India, including all charges on board,	£99,682,	or £0 19 0 per cwt.
The freight thereon, calculated at £20 per ton, was	104,838	
Duties paid by the Company, exclusive of those by purchase	6,946	
Charges, calculated at 1s. per ton on the quantity sold	4,930	
Forming a total of cost and charges of	£216,396	
The gross amount of the Company's sales was	331,381,	or, £3 3 2 per cwt.
Leaving a profit to the Company of	£114,985	

but private merchants importing sugar are liable to further charges than the above, which are as follow:

Insurance on prime cost, and freight home, say 7 per cent. on £200,000, and duty	£14,500
Company's charges on the gross sales, £331,351, at 3 per cent.	9,941
Fees of office at the East India House, &c. ½ per cent.	1,657
Commission on sales, 2½ per cent. £8,284, less charges above, of 1s. per ton, 1s.	3,354

The above, deducted from the profit arising to the Company as importers, leaves to the private merchant resident in India, a profit of £85,533, or 85 per cent. on the prime cost.

Of the sugar imported from Bengal in 1791, and sold in 1792, the lowest selling rate was 88s. 6d. per cwt. which gradually rose to 156s. per cwt. At these rates, under every discouraging circumstance of the superior duties, and reckoned at a rate of freight equal to £31 16s. per ton, the article yielded a considerable profit. The quantity sold in 1791-2 consisted of 213 tons, and cost £4664; the Customs upon which, at £37 16s. 3d. per cwt. were £8396; the freight £6758; the charge of merchandise £1116; forming a total of cost and charge of £20,933, and yielding a profit, free of all charges, of £1270 10s.; upwards of £25 6s. 7d. per cent. on the original cost. As the Company were uncertain whether this extraordinary price arose from the peculiar state of the markets, or from any real or supposed perfection of quality it might possess to the West India sugars, samples were sent to some of the most eminent refiners, for the purpose of receiving their opinions of its qualities. One of them observes "that it proved extremely different in its nature from any sugar that had ever passed his pans: that it had no disposition to granulate like West India sugar, though tempered with strong lime-water; and now that it has undergone the operation of claying, it is become very soft, and of the nature of soap when it has lain a long time in the water." He, however, adds, as his opinion, "that it was an article deserving the serious attention of the Directors, and that, under the superintendence of an active manager, it might amply reward those who should seriously set about its cultivation."

The refiners afterwards delivered in their reports, which were in substance as follow:—"From sugar of a good strength and quality there should be, on the average, one-half of refined in the first produce: in the above there are 18 lbs. less, but great allowance must be made for the waste in boiling so small a quantity (1 cwt.) in large vessels. That there could be little doubt that the Bengal sugar would be always acceptable in the London market even in its present state; but they were inclined to think its quality might be greatly improved by better management in the country, and that it would certainly be found to deserve the Company's attention and encouragement."

The Company also received the following report from another person of eminence in the trade:—"The appearance of the East India sugar at your last sale gave me little hopes of its answering the purposes of refining, on account of its being clammy, yellow, and soft, with small grain; yet, from the large crystals of the candy from the East, (much larger and stronger than British West India sugar will produce), I was induced to think that its natural qualities were concealed by improper treatment of the cane-juice, and that by a new solution it might in a great degree be restored.

"I have not been much disappointed in my expectations; for in the process of refining, its natural qualities are good: and I conceive, had it been properly tempered in the first boiling, it would have carried off all its impurities; would have given it a larger grain, which is the genuine essential salt of the cane; the particles of sugar would have disengaged themselves from the clammy substance (its only defect), and thereby it would have been equal to the most favoured of our West India sugars."

The prices at which the East India sugars sold at this period may be in some degree accounted for by the desire of many people who were anxious for the abolition of the slave trade, and were eager to have sugars made by free men.

The following is an account of the sugars imported by the East India Company, and sold at their sales in the years 1803 to 1811 inclusive, with the sale value.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.	
	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£
1803	5,258	10,433	22,350	46,356	27,608	56,789
1804	54,082	134,810	24,537	73,250	78,619	208,060
1805	60,774	176,667	41,958	119,147	102,732	295,814
1806	61,732	139,194	5,723	11,056	67,455	150,250
1807	57,521	112,835	48,234	87,038	105,755	199,873
1808	40,238	72,969	8,261	15,047	48,499	88,016
1809	29,574	59,955	4,043	8,795	33,617	68,750
1810	26,398	65,074	16,838	35,966	43,236	101,040
1811	2,336	4,379	—	—	2,336	4,379

Exclusive of which, there were some small quantities imported in the tonnage allowed to individuals, and in the private trade of the commanders and officers of the Company's ships.

The following is an account of the value of sugar exported from Bengal, exclusive of the East India Company's, in the years 1795–6 to 1805–6 inclusive; distinguishing what proportion was exported to London, and what to the United States of America, during the same period.

Years.	Total exported. Sicca Rupees.	To London. Sicca Rupees.	To America. Sicca Rupees.
1795–6	8,20,186	3,05,051	1,26,171
1796–7	11,57,715	4,77,000	3,34,248
1797–8	8,46,752	1,82,650	5,19,833
1798–9	14,01,646	3,75,999	1,70,860
1799–1800	23,89,691	6,98,667	6,59,340
1800–1	10,00,099	1,19,406	5,50,513
1801–2	12,01,798	2,17,899	3,10,379
1802–3	10,81,544	2,30,727	5,04,544
1803–4	10,71,366	672	8,53,313
1804–5	18,20,446	116	6,53,332
1805–6	33,24,168	54,478	11,69,261

and the remainder to the Coasts of Malabar and Coromandel, the Island of Ceylon, Prince of Wales's Island, the Cape of Good Hope, and Persian and Arabian Gulfs.

20 cwt. of sugar are allowed to a ton. The duties, bounties, and drawbacks, are as follow:

	Permanent.	Temporary.	Total.
White, or clayed, of the British plantations	£1 3 11 per cwt	£0 10 1 per cwt	£1 14 0
Brown, or Muscovado ditto	1 0 6 ditto	0 8 6 ditto	1 9 0
East India sugar	1 2 6 ditto	0 10 6 ditto	1 13 0

By the 49th Geo. III. chap. 98, sect. 8. the Lords of His Majesty's Treasury may suspend 3s. of the temporary or war duty on sugar, or part thereof, viz.

When the average price of raw sugar is below 40s. per cwt. 1s. per cwt.
Ditto 48s. ditto 2s. ditto.
Ditto 47s. ditto 3s. ditto.

The following are the bounties on refined sugar, from raw sugar imported by the East India Company, when exported in a British ship.

If the average price of brown or Muscovado sugar, published in the London Gazette on the 5th of May, 1810, the 5th of September, 1810, or the 5th of January, 1811, exclusive of the duties, shall not exceed 40s. per cwt. ..... per Cwt.	Refined Sugar, called Bastards, or Loaf Sugar broken in Pieces. £ s. d.	Refined Sugar in Lump, complete & whole, or Lump duty raised. £ s. d.
If 40s. and not above 45s.	1 5 0	1 18 0
45s. ditto 50s.	1 5 0	1 16 0
50s. ditto 58s.	1 0 0	1 14 0
58s. ditto 60s.	0 18 0	1 11 0
60s. ditto 62s.	0 16 0	1 7 0
62s. ditto 64s.	0 14 0	1 4 0
64s. ditto 66s.	0 12 0	1 0 0
66s. ditto 68s.	0 10 0	0 17 0
68s. ditto 70s.	0 8 0	0 13 0

If it exceeds 70s. the cwt. no drawback or bounties are allowed.

Refined sugar, in loaf or lump, exported in a foreign ship, is entitled to 1s. 6d. and bastards, or sugar broken in pieces, to 1s. the cwt. less bounty than above stated.

REFINED SUGAR.—The average price of brown or Muscovado sugar, for three months previous to the 5th of May, 1810, was 52s. 7¼d. per cwt.; therefore the bounty, as above rated, until the 5th of September, 1810, with a war duty of £42 10s. per cent. thereon is, *viz.*

Exported in a British ship	1	8	6	2	8	5 4/7
Ditto in a foreign ship	1	7	0 1/2	2	6	3 1/2

Ground or powdered sugar exported in a British ship	£1	8	6	per cwt.
Ditto in a foreign ship	1	7	0	ditto.

For the conditions, regulations, and restrictions under which the bounties are paid, see 47 Geo. III. chap. 22, continued by 49 Geo. III. chap. 10, &c.

The drawbacks on brown or Muscovado sugar are as follow:

If the average price of brown or Muscovado sugar, published in the London Gazette on the Saturday next after the first Wednesday in May, the first Wednesday in September, 1811, or the first Wednesday in January, 1812,

Shall not exceed 40s. per cwt.	£1	2	0	From 60s. and not exceeding 62s. per cwt.	£0	16	0
From 40s. to 45s. ditto	1	1	0	From 62s. ditto 64s.	0	14	0
From 45s to 50s. ditto	1	0	0	From 64s. ditto 66s.	0	12	0
From 50s. to 58s. ditto	1	0	0	From 66s. ditto 68s.	0	10	0
From 58s. to 60s. ditto	0	18	0	From 68s. ditto 70	0	8	0

If it shall exceed 70s. the cwt. no drawback is allowed. If exported in a foreign vessel, 1s. the cwt. less drawback is allowed thereon.

All the above prices are to be taken exclusive of the duties of customs paid or payable on the importation of such sugar.

SUGAR-CANDY.

A very superior sort is manufactured at Bengal, in small masses of from 3 to 6 lbs. each; the price varies according to its quality, from 25 to 40 rupees per maund. Large quantities of this article are consumed in India; but the principal part of the supply is imported from China in tubs, made of thin deal, each containing a pecul, or 66⅔ lbs. avoirdupois. They cost at China from 8 to 10 tales each. The best kind of sugar-candy is manufactured at Cochin China; it is in fine, clear, and transparent crystals.

20 cwt. of sugar-candy are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty on brown sugar-candy is £3 12s. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty, £1 4s.; and on white sugar-candy £5 15s. permanent, and £1 18s. 4d. per cwt. temporary or war duty.

TALC,

A species of fossil, of a soft smooth surface, of a whitish or silverlike lustre, which may be split into numerous fine plates, or leaves, which singly prove somewhat flexible and elastic, and perfectly pellucid. It is found in many parts of India and China, and is used instead of glass. In Bengal a seer of talc costs about two rupees, and will sometimes yield a dozen panes, 12 inches by 9, or 10 by 10, according to the form of the lump, and so far clear as to allow ordinary objects to be seen at 20 or 30 yards' distance. It should be chosen of a pure pearl colour, but it has in general either a yellowish or faint blue cast, and when split into leaves, it should present a smooth surface, though frequently it has small scaly blisters, which depreciates its value. It is seldom imported into Europe.

TAMARINDS

Are the fruit of a tree common in the East and West Indies. The fruit is a pod, somewhat resembling a bean cod, including several hard seeds, together with a dark coloured viscid pulp; this pulp is connected with the seeds by numerous tough strings or fibres, and these are freed from the outer shell. The oriental sort is dried, darker coloured, and has more pulp than the other; the former is sometimes preserved without addition, but the latter has always an admixture of sugar. Red, brown, and black are brought from the East Indies; of these the black is preferred. Chuse such as are new, black, pulpy, of a sharpish grateful taste, and vinous smell. Reject such as are musty, and have the seeds soft and swoln.

The following are the quantities of tamarinds imported from the East Indies, and sold at the Company's sales in the years 1803 to 1808 inclusive, with the sale amount, and average price per cwt.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.		Aver. per Cwt.		
	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	£	s.	d.
1803	—	—	1122	2486	1122	2486	2	4	4
1804	311	400	—	—	311	400	1	5	9
1805	593	585	175	93	768	678	0	17	8
1806	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
1807	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
1808	66	91	119	254	185	345	1	17	3

20 cwt. of tamarinds are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is £2 2s. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty, 14s. making in the whole £2 16s. per cwt.

TERRA JAPONICA,

Or Cutch, was long supposed to be an earthly substance from Japan, and called Terra Japonica; but it is a gummy resin extracted from the wood of a tree, called Mimosa Catechu. It is imported

from Bengal and Bombay: the latter is of an uniform texture, and of a red brown tint; the Bengal kind is more friable, and less consistent. It is generally in regular flat cakes; its colour resembles chocolate externally, but when broken, it appears in streaks of chocolate and brown. It is frequently mixed with sand and other impurities; has little or no smell, but a sweet astringent taste, melts in the mouth, and is gritty. It should be chosen of a clear uniform chocolate colour, the brightest and least burnt that can be, and as free from impurities as possible; if it be perfectly pure, it will totally dissolve in water; if otherwise, the impurities will remain behind. It is sometimes met with of a pale reddish brown, of a dark blackish brown, or black like bitumen. Some kinds are ponderous, others light; some compact, others porous; some more, others less astringent; and these differences happen according to the manner of obtaining them; but the heaviest and most compact are reckoned the best. It is an article of considerable trade from India to China.

The following are the quantities of Terra Japonica imported and sold at the East India Company's sales, in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive, with the sale amount, and average price per cwt.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.		Aver per Cwt.		
	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	£	s.	d.
1804	76	286	69	234	145	520	3	11	8
1805	260	663	—	—	260	663	2	11	0
1806	49	32	43	45	92	77	0	16	9
1807	146	82	—	—	146	82	0	11	3
1808	—	—	4	17	4	17	4	5	0

17 cwt. of Terra Japonica are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is £2 16s. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty 18s. 8d. making in the whole £3 14s. 8d. per cwt.

CHAPTER XXII.

Bengal to the Malay Peninsula.

Sunderbunds—Chittagong—Aracan—Coins—Commerce—Cheduba—Coast of Ava—Negrais—Persaim—Diamond Island—Coast of Pegu—Rangoon; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Royal Mandate for Trade—Commerce with the British Settlements—Port Charges—Import and Export Duties—Dimensions and Prices of Teak Timber—Provisions and Refreshments—Articles procurable at Pegu—Earth Oil—Emeralds—Garnets—Rubies—Martaban—Tavay—Merguí—Tenasserim—Junkceylon—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Duties—Provisions and Refreshments—Andaman Islands—Nicobar Islands.

THE head of the Bay of Bengal, from the Hughly River to the principal branch of the Ganges, which is low, level, and woody, is called the Sunderbunds, and is intersected in various directions by creeks and rivers. The country on each side being covered with wood, affords a harbour for robbers, who invariably infest this navigation. From the danger that consequently attends passing through these rivers and channels, which connect the Calcutta River with the Burrampooter, the general commerce of the country is frequently much impeded, notwithstanding the exertions of Government in stationing a police and armed boats in the several districts.

CHITTAGONG.

The entrance of Chittagong River is in latitude 22° 13 North. Islamabad, the principal town, is about 2½ leagues up the river, in latitude 22° 21 North, and longitude 91° 45 East. The town extends along the shore a considerable distance. The first part is called the Fringey Bazar, being inhabited by a number of Portuguese and other foreigners; here are dockyards, where vessels of considerable burthen are built in an excellent manner. Canvas of a very superior quality is manufactured here: and within these few years considerable quantities of hemp have been raised. Chittagong being under the Bengal Government, the commerce carried on is trifling, except in small coasting vessels.

The Portuguese visited Chittagong soon after their first voyage to India; it was then governed by an officer of the Great Mogul. In 1518 Sylveira was sent from Goa with four ships, and met with an appa-

rent friendly reception from the inhabitants, but who were at the same time plotting the destruction of the strangers: various skirmishes ensued, with victory to the Portuguese. During their stay they received an invitation from the King of Aracan to visit that city. Sylveira complied with the request, and sailed up the river; but on discovering that the friendly countenance shewn to him was the result of a plan concerted between him and the people of Chittagong to bring him into a snare, he fell down the river, but not before he was attacked, and nearly defeated by a numerous fleet prepared for his reception.

The King of Aracan afterwards seized on the country; and in order to make head against the Mogul, he took into his service a vast body of fugitive Portuguese, who for various crimes had fled from Goa, Cochin, and other Portuguese settlements in India. He bestowed on them lands in Chittagong, and granted them permission to act as they pleased, in consequence of which, they were guilty of every wickedness, and numbers of them turned pirates; they seized on some of the islands at the entrance of the Ganges, and took many of the commercial vessels belonging to the subjects of the Mogul. Aurungzebe, determined to extirpate these banditti, and to recover Chittagong from the King of Aracan, directed the Governor of Bengal to head the forces destined for the expedition. He first expelled those who had taken possession of the islands; then attempted to win over the Portuguese who remained at Chittagong, and succeeded in his design. The King of Aracan discovered their intended defection, and resolved to put them all to death. Being apprized of their danger, they all at once shipped themselves for Bengal, and joined the Mogul; part of them entered into his army, and served in the expedition. The fleet arrived on the coast, defeated that of Aracan, laid siege to the capital of Chittagong, took it, changed its name to Islamabad, and reannexed it to the province of Bengal. It came into the possession of the English at the acquisition of the Dewannee, and still continues so.

ARACAN.

The Coast of Aracan stretches S. S. E. from the Naff, a broad and deep river, which is the boundary that divides it from the territories of the East India Company, as far as the Island of Cheduba. The principal place of trade is Aracan, situated a considerable distance up a large and navigable river, which is scarcely paralleled in the East, of which Mosque Point, in latitude about 20° 15′ North, forms the northern side of the entrance. The fort consists of three squares, one within the other, each square surrounded with walls built of brick and stone. The two inner walls are about 14 feet high; the outer wall about 12 feet; the thickness of each about 8 feet. The fort has no ditch, nor any outworks to prevent the approach of an enemy. The river near the fort is narrow: large boats can come up to it; the banks are cultivated. There are a considerable number of cannon lying between the fort walls; only five or six of them are mounted on carriages, and those carriages are almost unserviceable. There are also a few brass cannon. All the others are thought to be so much damaged by exposure to the weather, as to be useless. Under different bamboo and straw sheds in the fort are kept a great many cannon balls of different sizes, a large quantity of gunpowder in earthen pots, and some matchlocks; the Rajah has also a few English muskets. The residence of the Rajah is built with bamboos and straw. Very few persons besides his family live in the fort; the land round it is level and cultivated, having a few houses scattered about.

The inhabitants of Aracan are commonly called Mugs; and previous to the Company acquiring possession of Chittagong, they frequently plundered the coast, and carried off numbers of the inhabitants into slavery: and for some time after the cession of the province, the Company found it necessary to keep up a considerable force for its protection. Of late years they have been more peaceably inclined.

In 1783 the Birmans invaded Aracan, and after a faint resistance from the natives, took the town and fort, in which they found considerable booty. Among it was an enormous piece of ordnance, composed of bars of iron beaten into form; it measured 30 feet in length, 2½ feet in circumference at the mouth, and 10

inches in the calibre. This, with some brass images, much valued by the natives, were conveyed to the Birman capital with great pomp and parade. Many of the inhabitants of Aracan, preferring flight to servitude, took refuge in the hills on the borders of Chittagong, and formed themselves into bands of robbers. The surrender of the islands of Cheduba and Ramree followed the conquest of Aracan.

COINS.

There was a mint at Aracan, where silver rupees were coined. An Aracan rupee is equal to 12 annas duss massa, or in Aracan to three kahawons, each kahawon 16 puns of cowries.

COMMERCE.

The trade of Aracan even before its subjection to the Birmans was inconsiderable, as will appear from the following account of the articles suitable to the market, which is extracted from Dalrymple's Oriental Repertory. Since that period it has not been frequented.

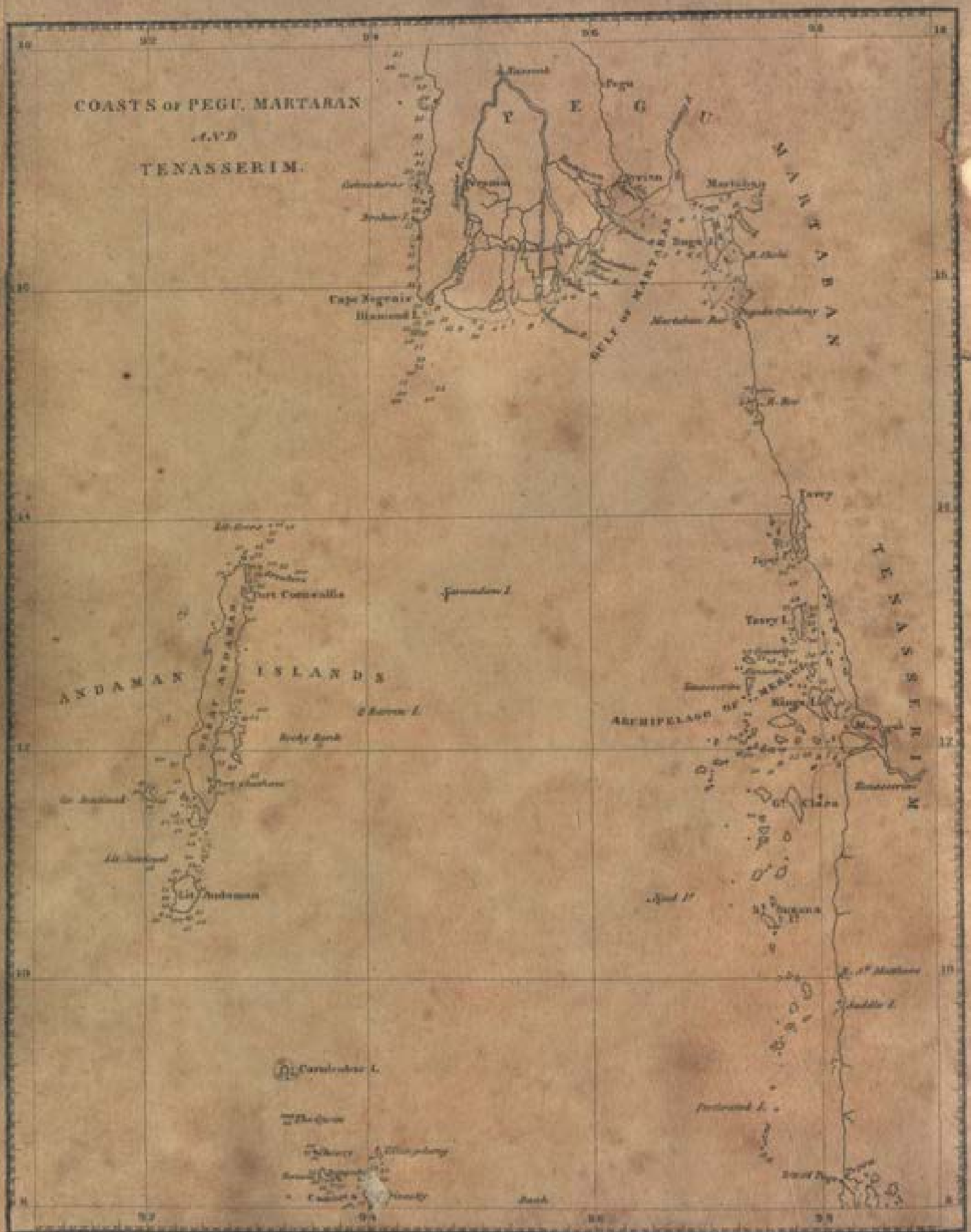
"I enclose a list of what things will do, and the quantity. It is a very troublesome place, but the gains are very great. The sum of money is so small that you invest, that at the most you can invest in five or six months, will be 6 or 8,000 rupees, unless there has not been a vessel there for two or three years, in which case you will be able to invest as much more. The port-charges will be 12 or 1400 rupees; what I mean, are the duties on import and expert. If there be a great call for wax in Calcutta, I would advise you to carry as much ready money as you can, for then you will get away the sooner, and will not be troubled to sell your goods at retail; for there is not a man there that can take 500 rupees of things at once without trust, and that you must never do, not even the great men; for by trusting them, I have been detained two or three months for my money. You may venture to trust the Rajah, as you can cut off so much of his duties. Do not let your invoice of these things exceed 4000 rupees; let the rest be in ready cash. As your rupees that you carry there will be all new coined by the Rajah, it will be best to carry Arcot rupees, as they weigh the same as Sicca rupees; at least the difference is only 2 per cent: by this you will save 7 or 8 per cent. on 6 or 7000 rupees. This is all that I can think at present will be of any service.

Iron	40 maunds	China cups in the Moors taste	1000
Steel	25 ditto.	China dishes, ditto	200
Hartall, China	3 ditto.	Musk	1 seer.
Sindure	1 ditto.	Opium	5 to 10 seers
Singerrys	1 ditto.	Hing	1 maund.
Painted cullemcurrys	40 pieces.	Raw silk	1 ditto.
Lead	5 or 6 maunds	Muga silk	4 ditto.

Isinglass ..... 5 seers, large pieces, such as are put in windows.
Cowries ..... 400 rupees worth, Maldive sort, if you can get them.
Coral ..... 1000 rupees worth, large and good; the long sort will do.
If salt is cheap in Calcutta, take in about 300 maunds, by way of ballast."

Aracan produces large quantities of rice, of which 15 seers may generally be procured for two puns of cowries, equal to 12 maunds for a duss massa rupee. A few elephants' teeth, some wax, wood oil, and several kinds of coarse piece-goods are the principal exports of the country.

Plenty of elephants, buffaloes, hogs, goats, and deer are to be met with; likewise geese, ducks, and fowls; and of vegetables, nearly the same kinds as are produced in Bengal.


COASTS OF PEGU, MARTABAN
AND
TENASSERIM.
PEGU
MARTABAN
TENASSERIM
ANDAMAN ISLANDS
Cape Negrais
Diamond I.
Pegu
Martaban
Tavoy
Tavoy I.
Port Cornwallis
Lit. Andaman
Gt. Clara
Saddle I.
Portland I.
Bank

CHEDUBA.

This island extends nearly N.W. and S.E. about 7 leagues, and is situated between the latitudes of 18° 36′ and 18° 50′ North; it is about twenty miles from the coast, and there is a safe passage between the island and the main. The town is situated on the eastern side of the island, in longitude 93° 40′ East, up a small river, into which it is difficult for boats to get at falling tide, on account of a number of mud banks which lie off its entrance, more than 1¼ mile from the shore. The river is narrow and winding, but deep enough, after passing the flats, for large boats at all times of the tide. The landing-place is near a small wooden bridge, about two miles up on the right hand side of the river, where there is a bazar, well supplied with poultry, hogs, goats, vegetables, and fruits in abundance, at reasonable prices, and of excellent quality. Shipping may fill water here in their own boats at half ebb, though it may be procured more expeditiously, but at a greater expence, by application to the Chief, to employ the boats of the country. Permission must be obtained from him previous to procuring any supplies. The sale of cattle is restricted, not only by the Government of Pegu, under whose dominion the island is, but also by the tenets of their religion; and so rigidly do the natives adhere to them, that it is impossible to procure a bullock at any price, though the island abounds with them. The anchorage for large ships is, the mouth of the river W. 15° S. and the town pagoda W. 19° S. in 4½ fathoms.

The inhabitants appear friendly; but small vessels frequenting the island, should be upon their guard. Large quantities of rice are grown upon the island, and sent to various parts of the Pegu dominions. The Island of Ramree, to the S. E. of Cheduba, also produces large quantities of rice. These islands used to be occasionally visited by French privateers, for the purpose of refreshment and refitting.

The Coast of Ava extends in a southerly direction from near Cheduba to Cape Negrais, forming several bays destitute of shelter for ships, and having several small islands and dangers in its vicinity.

NEGRAIS.

Cape Negrais, the south-westernmost land of the Coast of Ava, is in latitude 16° 2′ North, and longitude 94° 13′ East; but the southernmost extremity of that coast is generally called Pagoda Point, from a pagoda standing upon it, and is in latitude 15° 58′ North. This point forms the western side of Ava River, called also Persaim and Bassein River, and Point Porean the eastern side. The island of Negrais is situated in the entrance of the river about four or five miles inside of Pagoda Point. The river is navigable a great way inland. There are two channels into it, one on each side of the island.

The Island of Negrais was taken possession of by the English, and a survey was made of it in 1687, when the Government of Madras established a settlement on it: little benefit, however, seems to have been derived from the acquisition, as it was soon after abandoned.

In the year 1751, the English again took possession of Negrais, and established a factory, which they fortified, but neglected. In 1757 the Birman Emperor ceded to the East India Company the island in perpetuity; but in consequence of the war in India, the Madras Government could not afford the necessary supplies for the effectual support of the settlement: it was therefore deemed expedient to withdraw the settlers, which was done in May, 1759, leaving a few persons to take care of the teak timber and materials for ship-building, and to preserve the right of possession, in case it should be determined at any future period to re-establish the settlement. These were cut off by the Birmans on the 6th of October, 1759, since which period no attempt has been made to establish a factory.

The English had also a factory at Persaim, a town on the east side of the river, about 20 miles from its entrance, which consisted of a few storehouses erected near the river, for the purpose of facilitating

the timber trade. In 1759 the Company obtained a piece of ground opposite the town, for the erection of a factory; in return for which, they engaged to pay an annual tribute, consisting of ordnance and military stores, but it does not appear to have been considered of any importance.

DIAMOND ISLAND,

In latitude 15° 52′ North, and longitude 94° 19′ East, is about seven miles to the southward of Pagoda Point, and fronting the entrance of Ava River; it is about 1½ mile in extent, low, and covered with trees, but should not be approached by large vessels, on account of the reefs that surround it. The Honourable Company's ship Travers was recently lost near this place.

Diamond Island is at some seasons much frequented by turtle, and has been occasionally visited by men of war stationed in India; but a great number of lives have been lost, it being extremely dangerous and unhealthy for people to remain on shore during the night.

PEGU.

The coast of Pegu extends from Ava, or Persaim River, to the Gulf of Martaban, and is generally low and woody, intersected by many rivers, with reefs and shoal water extending along it to a considerable distance. Rangoon River, called also Sirian and Pegu River, is the only place on this coast frequented by European ships. The entrance to the river is known by a grove of trees, about fifteen miles to the S. W. called China Buckeer. This mark ships that are bound into the river first endeavour to make.

RANGOON.

This town is situated about twenty miles up a considerable branch of the principal river, having a bar, on which are only about two fathoms at low water; but the perpendicular rise and fall of the tide is frequently twenty-one feet. Ships bound into the river should anchor at its entrance, and make the signal for a pilot, or dispatch a boat into the river for one, if the weather be favourable.

The town of Rangoon stretches along the banks of the river about a mile, and is not more than the third of a mile in breadth. The city is a square, surrounded by a high stockade; and on the north side it is further strengthened by a fosse, across which a wooden bridge is thrown; in this face there are two gates, but in each of the others only one. Wooden stages are erected in several places within the stockade, for musketeers to stand on, in case of an attack. On the south side towards the river, which is about 20 or 30 yards from the palisade, there are a number of huts, and three wharfs with cranes for landing goods, which enable ships to deliver and receive cargoes expeditiously, and without the use of small craft. A battery of 12 guns raised on the bank, commands the river; but both guns and carriages are in a bad condition. The custom-house is built of brick and mortar, and covered with tiles, having within a number of platforms for the reception of bale-goods. Close to the principal wharf are two commodious wooden houses, used by the merchants as an Exchange, where they usually meet in the cool of the morning and evening to converse, and transact business. The streets of the town are narrow, but clean, and well paved; there are numerous channels to carry off the rain, over which strong planks are laid, to prevent an interruption of intercourse. The houses are raised on posts from the ground, the smaller supported by bamboos, the larger by strong timbers. All the officers of Government, the most opulent merchants, and persons of consideration live within the fort; shipwrights and people of inferior rank inhabit the suburbs. The town suffered much by a dreadful fire which broke out on the 13th of January, 1810, which destroyed a great part of it, and the property consumed was very considerable.

Rangoon, having long been the asylum of insolvent debtors from the different settlements in India, is crowded with foreigners of desperate fortunes, who find from the Birmans a friendly reception, and,

for the most part, support themselves by carrying on a petty trade. Here are to be met fugitives from all countries in the east. The Exchange exhibits a motley assemblage, such as few towns of much greater magnitude can produce. Malabars, Moguls, Persees, Armenians, Portuguese, French, and English all mingle here, and are engaged in various branches of commerce. The Persees, Armenians, and a few Mussulmen engross the greater part of the trade; and individuals from their number are frequently selected by Government to fill employments of trust that relate to trade, and transactions with foreigners.

The river of Rangoon is very commodious for building and repairing ships. The forests produce inexhaustible quantities of teak timber, and the banks of the river are so soft and flat, that there is little need of labour for the formation of docks. Ships of considerable burthen, from 600 to 900 tons, have been built here, of excellent workmanship, and of the best materials.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Coins.—The Birmans, like the Chinese, have no coin. Silver in bullion, and lead, are the current monies of the country; weight and purity are of course the standard of value, and in the ascertainment of both, the natives are exceedingly scrupulous and expert.

What foreigners call a tical, or tackal, properly kiat, is the most general piece of silver in circulation; it weighs 10 dwts. 10 grains, 75 dec. and is thus divided:

2 tubbees 2 moos 4 maths 100 ticals	make	1 moo 1 math 1 tical 1 vis.	

Money scales and weights are all fabricated at the capital, where they are stamped, and afterwards circulated throughout the empire; the use of any others is prohibited.

The bankers, called by foreigners Pymons, are likewise workers in silver, and assayers of metal. This class of people is very numerous, and indispensably necessary, as no stranger can undertake either to pay or receive money without having it first examined. Every merchant has a banker of this description, with whom he deposits all his cash and who, for receiving and paying, gets an established commission of 1 per cent.; in consideration of which, he is responsible for the quality of what goes through his hands, and a breach of trust is very seldom heard of.

The quantity of alloy varies in the silver current in different parts of the empire. At Rangoon it is adulterated 25 per cent. In pure, or what is called flowered silver, all royal dues are paid. The several modifications are as follow:

Rouni..... or pure silver	Rouassee..... or 20 per cent. alloy.
Roumika..... or 5 per cent. alloy.	Moowadzoo..... or 25 ditto.
Rounizee..... or 10 ditto	Woombo..... or 30 ditto.

Any person may have his silver either purified or depreciated to whatever standard he chuses. The nearest silversmith will perform the work free from charge; as the bringer by the operation must lose a trifle, which the artist gains; the small quantity of metal that adheres to the crucible being his profit.

Weights and Measures.—The weights are the moo, tual, vis, and candy, and are thus divided:

100 moos 100 tuals 150 vis	make	1 tual 1 vis 1 candy

The vis is considered equal to 3 lbs. 5 oz. 5 drs. 33 dec. and the candy to 500 lbs. avoirdupois.

Rice is sold by a measure called tayndaung, or basket; the weight is 16 vis, about 56 lbs. The average price of rice at Rangoon is about 4 or 5 baskets for a tical.

The measures of length are the paulgaut, or inch, 18 of which compose the taim, or cubit. The saundaung, or royal cubit, is equal to 22 inches, but varies according to the will of the King.

The dha, or bamboo, consists of 7 royal cubits; 1000 dhas make one dain, or Birman league, equal to 2 English miles, and 2 furlongs; the league is also subdivided into tenths.

The Birmans keep their accounts in decimals, after the manner of the Chinese.

COMMERCE.

The commerce carried on here is to a very inconsiderable extent, the demand for foreign articles being trifling, the whole amount of imports not exceeding 12,00,000 rupees. Piece-goods form the most material part of the imports from India, and are generally of common kinds of British commodities. Broad cloth of two colours, one side red, the other green or blue, is in great request, being used for mantles in the cold season.

The chief exportation from Pegu are teak timber in balks, called duggies and artics, keel pieces, mast-fishes, planks, and sheathing boards. They have other timber in great abundance, but it is seldom exported, particularly an inferior kind of cedar, both red and white, called jarroll, and which is used here chiefly for compass and crooked timber, in ship-building.

Pegu also produces rubies, diamonds, emeralds, and other precious stones; iron, copper, tin, lead, wood oil, earth oil, wax, dammer, elephants' teeth, cutch, and silver. The iron is said to be of so excellent a quality, as to be little inferior to steel; but Europeans who build ships at Rangoon, generally carry their iron work, ready forged, from the English Presidencies, particularly from Calcutta.

The following is a copy of the translation of the royal mandate relative to the English trade:

"Whereas English merchants resort to the Port of Rangoon to carry on trade in friendship, good faith, and confidence in the royal protection; therefore, when merchants come to the port of Rangoon, duties for godown, searchers, or appraisers, and other charges, shall be regulated according to the former established rates, and no more on any pretence shall be taken.

"English merchants, who have paid the port-duties, shall be allowed to go to whatever part of the country they think fit, having obtained a certificate and order from the Maywoon, or Governor of the province; and whatever goods English merchants wish to purchase in return, they shall not be impeded or molested, or prevented in their barter, bargain, or purchase; and if it should be judged expedient to establish any person on the part of the English Company at Rangoon for the purpose of trade, and to forward letters or presents to the King, to such person a right of residence is granted.

"If any English merchant be aggrieved, or thinks that he suffers oppression, he may complain, either through the Governor of the province, by petition to the throne, or prefer his complaint in person; and as Englishmen are, for the most part, unacquainted with the Birman tongue, they may employ whatever interpreters they think proper, previously acquainting the King's principal interpreter with what person they mean to employ.

"English ships driven into Birman ports by stress of weather, and in want of repairs, on due notice of their distress being given to the officers of Government, such vessels shall be expeditiously supplied with workmen, timber, iron, and every requisite; and the work shall be done, and the supplies granted at the current rates of the country.

"As the English have long had commercial connection with the Birman nation, and are desirous of extending it, they are to be allowed to come and depart at their pleasure without hindrance; and seeing that the illustrious Governor of Calcutta in Bengal, on the part of the King of England, has sent tokens of friendship, these orders are therefore issued for the benefit, welfare, and protection of the English people."

COMMERCE WITH THE BRITISH SETTLEMENTS.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Pegu from the British settlements in India, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Pegu to the British settlements during the same period; together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO PEGU.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	3,40,210	1,11,923	4,52,133
1803	1,43,523	83,114	2,26,637
1804	1,63,012	39,643	2,02,655
1805	2,25,653	19,579	2,45,232
1806	2,22,187	——	2,22,187
Total.	10,94,585	2,54,259	13,48,844

EXPORTS FROM PEGU.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	4,79,880	9,878	4,89,758
1803	7,77,357	16,590	7,93,947
1804	4,58,941	1,684	4,60,625
1805	5,95,738	57,870	6,53,608
1806	4,71,070	——	4,71,070
Total.	27,82,986	86,022	28,69,008

Articles of Import in 1805.

Tin	Sicca Rupees 1,400
Wine	1,400
Woollens	5,176
Piece-goods	1,26,202
Opium	15,110
Grain	2,000
Rum	2,336
Canvas	1,534
Sundries	8,332
Imports re-exported, viz.	
Broad cloth	17,196
Iron and nails	6,528
Wine and liquors	2,637
Velvets	8,314
Tin and plated ware	4,625
China-ware	3,085
Ironmongery	2,148
Sundries	9,395
Treasure	19,579
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 2,45,232

Articles of Export in 1805.

Timber and plank	Sicca Rupees 4,61,153
Pepper	18,809
Hartall	38,788
Coir and coir cables	12,678
Horses	30,867
Cardamums	1,232
Stick-lac	657
Wax	3,249
Sundries	28,305
Treasure	57,870
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 6,53,608

Merchandise imported into Pegu from the British settlements, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees 10,94,585
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto	27,82,986
Exports exceed the imports	16,88,401
Treasure imported into Pegu from the British settlements during the same period	2,54,259
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto	86,022
	1,68,237
Balance *in favour* of Pegu in five years	Sicca Rupees 18,56,638

PORT-CHARGES.

The import and export charges on a ship, of whatever burthen she may be, and presents to the principal men, &c. are as follow:

Messenger belonging to the King	115 Ticals	Anchorage dues	30 Ticals
The head Government altogether	650 ditto	Sundry charges on clearing out the ship, *viz.*	
The King's linguist	80 ditto	Cups, plates, and soft sugar	30 ditto
Lidgena, petty writers, &c.	75 ditto	Fowls, hogs, &c. for breakfast	20 ditto
Chantry	10 ditto	Pilotage in and out of Rangoon	300 ditto
Doorkeeper	10 ditto	A boat to take the pilot out	25 ditto

forming a total of 1345 ticals. A new ship built in the river, on proceeding on her first voyage, is exempt from the port-charges, but she is afterwards subject to all charges as other ships.

IMPORT AND EXPORT DUTIES.

The duty levied on all goods imported, is 10 per cent.; goods exported are exempt from duty. All canvas, cordage, wrought iron, and other stores, imported for the equipment of a ship building at Rangoon, are free from duty. Presents to the Princes, Ministers, &c. are necessary; and the more liberally they are given, the more accommodation is experienced in the transacting of business.

DIMENSIONS AND PRICES OF TEAK TIMBER.

The following are the dimensions and prices of timber exported to the British settlements:

Duggies	from 27 to 30 feet long, and 17 to 24 inches square	10 to 12 ticals each.
Shinbins	from 27 to 36 long, 5 to 6 inches thick, and 15 to 18 in. broad	5 to 6 ditto.
Comar plank	27 to 28 feet long, 3 inches thick, and 10 to 11 broad	3½ to 4½ ditto.
Arties	25 to 30 feet long, and 9 to 12 inches square	3 to 4½ ditto.
Ditto	16 to 20 ditto, and 9 to 12 ditto	2½ to 3 do. per pair.
Sheathing boards of the usual dimensions		30 to 35 do. per 100.
Joists	ditto	2½ ditto per pair.
Pendaws	17 feet long, 6 to 7 inches thick, and 18 to 20 inches broad, according to quality.	
Plank	27 to 28 long, 1 to 2 thick, 10 to 11 broad, ditto.	

The Pegu teak is not so much esteemed as that of Malabar, or what is grown on the Coast of Coromandel, notwithstanding which it is in great demand in all parts of India.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Oxen and buffaloes are plentiful, but are not permitted to be killed, on account of the religious prejudices of the natives; they can therefore only be obtained clandestinely. Poultry is abundant, and as reasonable as at Calcutta. Hogs, goats, and deer are numerous, and the latter forms the principal food of the Europeans and natives. Rice, fruit, and vegetables are likewise plentiful, the former from three to five baskets for a tical. Water is obtained from the river, or from wells in the town.

Articles procurable at Pegu, with Directions how to chuse them.

EARTH OIL.

Or Petroleum. This name is given to a liquid bituminous substance, which flows between stones or rocks, and different places in the earth. This oil differs in lightness, smell, consistence, and inflammability in its several specimens. Authors have distinguished many varieties: the principal are naptha, petroleum, and mineral pitch.

Naptha is the thinnest of the liquid bitumens, perfectly fluid, colourless, of a strong smell, not highly fragrant, extremely subtile, so light as to swim on water, spreading to a large surface, and highly inflammable. By the slightest contact of a burning body it takes fire, and burns with a copious blueish yellow flame, a penetrating odour, and much smoke.

Petroleum, properly so called, is in consistence next to naptha, but grosser and thicker; of a reddish or brown colour, but so light as to swim in spirits of wine; it is inflammable, of a bitter taste, and its smell strong and penetrating.

Asphaltum, or mineral pitch, is already described in Vol. I. page 103.

In the neighbourhood of Rangoon are many petroleum wells. The following is extracted from an account of them by Captain Hiram Cox, formerly Resident at Rangoon.

"At this particular place there are 180 wells, and four or five miles to the N. E. 340 more. In making a well, the hill is cut down, so as to form a square table of 14 or 20 feet, for the crown of the well; and from this table a road is formed, by scraping away an inclined plane for the drawers to descend, in raising the excavated earth from the well, and subsequently the oil. The shaft is sunk of a square form, and lined, as the miner proceeds, with squares of cassia wood staves; these staves are about six feet long, six inches broad, and two thick, are rudely jointed, and pinned at right angles to each other, forming a square frame, about 4½ feet in the clear for the uppermost ones, but more contracted below. The property of the wells is in the owners of the soil: one family will, perhaps, possess four or five, seldom more, but the generality have less. They are sunk and wrought for the proprietors. The cost of sinking a new well is 2000 ticals of flowered silver, or about 2,500 Sicca rupees; and the annual average net profit, 1000 ticals.

"The contract price with the miners for sinking a well, is as follows:—For the first 40 cubits of 19 inches, they have 40 ticals; for the next 40 cubits, 300 ticals; and beyond these 80 cubits, to the oil, they have from 30 to 50 ticals per cubit, according to the depth, taking the mean rate of ticals per cubit, and 100 cubits as the general depth at which they come to the oil: the remaining 20 cubits will cost 800 ticals, or the whole of the miners' wages for sinking the shaft, 1,140 ticals. A well of 100 cubits will require 950 cassia staves, which, at five ticals per 100, will cost 47½ ticals. Porterage and workmanship in fitting them may amount to 100 ticals more. The levelling of the hill for the crown of the well, and making the draw-road, &c. according to the common rate of labour in the country, will cost about 200 ticals more: the remainder is expended in provisions for the workmen, expences of propitiatory sacrifices, &c.

"The oil is drawn pure from the wells, in the liquid state as used, without variation; but in the cold season it congeals in the open air, and always loses something in its fluidity; the temperature of the wells preserving it in a liquid state fit to be drawn. The oil is of a dingy green, and odorous; it is used for lamps, and boiled with a little dammer, for painting the timbers of houses, and the bottoms of boats, &c. which it preserves from vermin. Its medicinal properties, known to the natives, is as a lotion in cutaneous eruptions, and as an embrocation in bruises and rheumatic affections.

"The average produce of each well, per day, is stated at 500 vis, or 1,825 lbs. avoirdupois, and that the labourers earned upwards of 8 ticals per month. Each well is worked by four men, and their wages are regulated by the average produce of six days' labour, of which they have one sixth, or its value, at the rate of 1¼ tical per 100 vis, the price at the wells. The proprietor has the option of paying their sixth in oil, but generally pays the value in money. Admitting the average produce of each well to be 300 vis per day, or 109,500 vis per annum, equal to 395,675 lbs. avoirdupois, or 173 tons 955 lbs. or in liquid measure 793 hogsheads of 63 gallons each, and as there are 520 wells registered by Government, the gross amount produce of the whole per annum, will be 92,781 tons, or 412,360 hhds. worth at the wells, at 1¼ tical per 100 vis, 711,750 ticals, or 289,737 Sicca rupees.

"From the wells the oil is carried in small jars by coolies, or on carts to the river, where it is delivered to the merchant exporter at 2 ticals per 100 vis, the value being enhanced three-eighths by the expence and risk of carriage; therefore the gross value or profit to the country of the whole, deducting 5 per cent. for wastage, may be stated at 1,081,860 ticals, or 1,362,325 Sicca rupees per annum, yielding a direct revenue to the King of 136,232 Sicca rupees per annum, and perhaps thrice as much before it reaches the consumer, besides the benefit the whole country must derive from the productive industry called into action by the constant employment of so large a capital on so gruff an article. There are between 70 and 80 boats, of the average burthen of 60 tons, constantly loading oil at the wharf, besides others going and coming. A number of boats and men also find constant employment im providing pots, &c. for the oil; and the extent of this single branch of internal commerce (for almost the whole is consumed in the country), will serve to give some insight into the internal commerce and resources of the country.

"At the wells the price of the oil is 7 annas 7 pice per cwt. At Rangoon it is sold at the rate of 3 Sicca rupees, 3 annas, and 6 pice per cwt. or per Bengal maund, 2 rupees, 5 annas, 8 pice; whereas the mustard seed, and other vegetable oils, sell at Rangoon at 11 rupees per bazar maund."

EMERALDS

Are principally produced in South America, but are also to be met with at Pegu. They are of a shining, transparent, dark grass green colour, generally of a round or oval form, seldom as large as a hazel-nut. It is rare to find the colour pure, and of good strength; hence such specimens are highly valued. In the choice of emeralds great care should be taken to avoid all fouls, or spots within, to which they are very subject, and which materially depreciate their value.

The permanent duty on emeralds is 10 per cent. and the temporary or war duty £3 6s. 8d. making in the whole £13 6s. 8d. per cent.

GARNETS

Are met with at Pegu, and other parts of the East Indies; they are of various sizes, from an inch in diameter to the size of a pin's head, and in roundish or oblong pieces, apparently polished. They should be chosen as large as possible, free from specks, flaws, and other impurities, and the colour of the juice of a ripe mulberry. The drill holes should be small, and not broken or flawed round. They are occasionally imported in large rough pieces, undrilled.

The permanent duty on cut garnets is 17s. 6d. and the temporary or war duty 5s. 10d. per lb. on uncut garnets the former is 6s. and the latter 2s. per lb.

RUBIES

Are produced in Pegu, and occasionally some very excellent ones may be procured: they are of four kinds, viz. ruby, spinelle ruby, balass ruby, and rubycelle.

The ruby is a transparent gem, of a beautiful reddish colour, not like that of vermillion, but of blood, or cochineal. They are generally found very small, about the size of a large pin's head, of a roundish or oval form, but are met with of one and two carats, and sometimes much larger. They should be chosen of a lively fine colour; the deeper the red, the larger the stone, and the clearer it is, without flaws or veins, the more it is esteemed. The pale and veiny stones should be rejected.

The spinelle ruby is nearly of the same colour as the true ruby, but has not its beauty and splendour.

The balass ruby is more of the colour of crimson, and when well polished, is a handsome stone.

The rubycelle is red, with a cast of yellow in it, and is the least valuable of the kind.

According to Dutens, a perfect ruby, if it weighs more than three carats and a half, is of greater value than a diamond of the same weight, such stones being remarkably scarce: a stone of one carat, and perfect, he estimates to be worth ten guineas; two carats forty guineas, and three carats one hundred and fifty guineas.

The permanent duty on rubies is 10 per cent. and the temporary or war duty £3 6s. 8d. making in the whole £13 6s. 8d. per cent.

MARTABAN.

This town is situated on the north side of a river, in latitude 16° 28' North, about 20 leagues to the eastward of Rangoon river. A large island, called Buga, fronts the entrance of the river, the proper channel into which is to the eastward of the island, between it and the main land, having a bar at the entrance; the distance from which to the town of Martaban is about seven leagues.

Martaban was formerly a place of considerable trade, and was once the capital of an independent kingdom, but was attacked and taken by the King of Ava, who reduced the place to ashes, and sunk large vessels with stones at the mouth of the port, so that at present only small ships can enter. It still retains its potteries, and manufactures large jars, some of which will contain two hogsheads.

TAVAY.

Tavay Point, on which stands a pagoda, is in latitude 13° 33' North, and longitude 98° 6' East, and forms the western side of the entrance of Tavay river. The river runs in a northerly direction, and about eight leagues up are the fort and town of Tavay, seldom visited by Europeans. Inside the point there is good anchorage for large ships, and in time of war it is much frequented by French privateers, being convenient for wooding and watering. Water is procured at a small brook, a short distance to the northward of the point.

In 1752 the English were offered a settlement here by the Prince upon the following terms: That the Company should supply 100 pieces of cannon, 3 covids and 1 span long, 4 of 5 covids and 1 span, 100 muskets, 1000 catties of gunpowder, and a like quantity of shot; that 50 men should be kept there for his defence at the Company's charge, so long as the settlement was continued; and that the succours necessary at any time for the preservation of his country, should also be transported at their expence; besides which, he was to have an annual present, though the value of that present was not specified. On these considerations the following privileges were offered:—The Company to have the refusal of all the tin in his country, and private merchants only to have what the Company did not chuse to purchase. They were allowed to purchase as much grain as their ships might require. They were allowed leave to build vessels, and to cut the timber necessary for this purpose, as well as for lading their ships; and on these conditions it was stipulated that all their ships should be free from paying customs, or making presents. These terms, however, were not accepted, though the country is stated to produce tin and rice in great abundance, likewise some cardamums and gold. It abounds, as well as the neighbouring countries, with excellent timber.

In 1760 Tavay was taken by the Birmans. In 1790 the Governor delivered it up to the Siamese, from whom it was soon after retaken, after an obstinate resistance, in which they lost 3000 men.

MERGUI

Is situated on the principal branch of the Tenasserim river, in latitude 12° 12' North, and longitude 98° 24' East. Large ships anchor in the roads, with a small island called Mandramacan, which forms the S. W. side of the river's entrance, bearing south, distant 3 or 4 miles. The town of Mergui is about six miles up the river; vessels of moderate size, by taking pilots, can go over the bar into the river, and anchor opposite the town, in 5 fathoms water.

Mergui, at the close of the seventeenth century, was much frequented by Europeans. The French had a settlement here, which has been long since abandoned. The English resided here in 1687; but, in consequence of an order from Madras, they were obliged to leave the country, but not till many persons were murdered, in consequence of some misunderstanding with the Siamese. Previous to that period they were much esteemed; the offices of Shabundar at Mergui and Tenasserim, and Admiral of the King's navy, were held by Englishmen. They had a fort here, which is now in ruins. The river was formerly navigable a considerable distance farther up, where the Portuguese had a factory; but at present the communication is only open for boats, and whether the navigation has been ruined by accident, or intentionally, is not known.

In 1760 Mergui was taken by the Birmans, after a short resistance, in whose possession it still is.

It of late years has been much frequented by French cruisers and privateers, to procure provisions and refreshments. There are many Mahometan merchants, and natives of India, who carry on the remaining trade of the place, which under a better government would be much increased.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

The principal is the tical, or tual, equal to about half a Spanish dollar. The China pecul is in common use, and by it most articles of merchandise are bought and sold.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The articles principally in demand, and which are imported from several parts of India, are iron, Madras piece-goods, salt, tobacco, &c. Their principal exports are tin, elephants' teeth, and rice. This latter article may be purchased here at the rate of 12 pagodas a garce, equal to 8256 lbs. avoirdupois; the common price on the Coromandel Coast is generally above 30, and sometimes even 80 pagodas a garce. For salt, which is seldom higher than 3 pagodas a garce, they give in return 3 of rice for 1 of salt. A bundle of tobacco, which will cost about a pagoda on the Malabar Coast, will sometimes sell for 10 or 12 at Mergui; and chintz, and other fine painted goods, will, if the market be not overstocked, find immediate vent. There is abundance of fine timber, and many carpenters here.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

The oxen here are good, but, from religious motives, are difficult to be procured. Other articles are plentiful, and cheap; for instance, 20 fowls may be bought for a tical. Fish are very fine, abundant, and cheap. Fire-wood and water are easily procured.

TENASSERIM

Is situated about 30 miles up the river, on the South side, and is a place of considerable trade. The whole of this coast from Martaban formed a part of the dominions of the King of Siam; but after continued wars between that nation and the Birmans, the latter power obtained possession, and by treaty in 1793, the Siamese ceded to the Birmans the maritime towns, and the entire possession of the coast of

Tenasserim, with the two important posts of Mergui and Tavay—acquisitions of great moment, when considered either in a political or commercial light.

The narrow part of the continent, which separates the Bay of Bengal from the Gulf of Siam, is sometimes called the Isthmus of Kraw. The whole extent of coast, from Tavay to Junkceylon, is generally called the Coast of Tenasserim, having several bays and harbours seldom visited by Europeans.

JUNKCEYLON.

This island is divided from the continent by a narrow isthmus of sand, about a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth, and is covered at high water; it shuts up, on the north part, an excellent harbour, called Popra, where a vessel drawing 20 feet water may get in on the springs, over a mud bar. The island extends from the latitude of 8° 9′ to 7° 46′ North, and is about 24 miles long, and 10 broad.

The place where ships generally anchor, is in a good road, well sheltered behind a small island, joined to the main at low water, in latitude 8° 10′ North. On the main, opposite to this island, is a creek, that leads to a village called Terowa, consisting of about 80 houses, built of timber, and covered with palm-leaves. Here resides the Viceroy, or Governor, from the Court of Pegu. On the S.W. side of the island is another good harbour, where vessels occasionally stop.

In 1785 the Birmans made an attempt to take Junkceylon; they invaded it with an army of 8000 men, and immediately on their arrival attacked the fort, which is situated on the east side of the island, and were successful, notwithstanding a spirited resistance from the Siamese Governor, who afterwards withdrew into the interior of the island. The Birmans found here a valuable booty; but their triumph was of short duration. The Siamese Governor rallied his forces, and became in his turn the assailant with so good an effect, that the Birmans thought fit to retire to their shipping, which they did not accomplish without a heavy loss. They have since succeeded in obtaining possession of the island.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

All kinds of Indian coin pass current here, but the preference is given to Spanish dollars. They have not the small cash in circulation as at Acheen and other places. They have certain pieces of tin, shaped like the under half of a cone, called poot, which are used on the island as money, weighing about three pounds; these are also their weights.

4 poots	make	1 vis
10 vis	make	1 capin
8 capins	make	1 bahar

which is equal to 6½ Bengal factory maunds. The China pecul is in use here, by which tin is generally sold, the price varying from 12 to 16 Spanish dollars per pecul.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

A considerable trade used formerly to be carried on here; but in consequence of orders from the Government, the use of opium is forbidden to the natives, and a heavy duty laid on the exportation of tin. The trade has much declined. It is occasionally visited by country ships, which bring the following articles:

Coarse cutlery.	Looking glasses.	Steel, in faggots.
China ware.	Opium.	Tobacco.
Iron, in bars.	Piece-goods.	Woollens.

The Malay and Buggess proas, previous to the establishment at Pulo Pinang, used to come here to exchange their produce, which consisted of Buggess cambays, Java painted cloths and handkerchiefs, China gongs, brass utensils, the blue and white coarse cloths, called kangan, &c. with the country vessels for opium, giving in exchange the tin they procured here for their own imports.

The principal export is tin, of which article upwards of 500 tons used annually to be exported; a few elephants' teeth are occasionally to be met with.

DUTIES.

This was formerly a free port, but latterly a heavy duty has been laid on tin: yet if a ship sells her cargo to the Governor, she is understood to be exempt from duty both on imports and exports.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Bullocks and buffaloes, wild hogs, and deer are to be had; they have common poultry, but not in abundance. Rice, and various vegetables, with several kinds of tropical fruits, are to be procured. The water is good, and got with little difficulty.

ANDAMAN ISLANDS.

This group comprehends the Great and Little Andaman, and the small islands in the vicinity; they are situated on the eastern side of the Bay of Bengal, about three degrees from the Coast of Tenasserim.

GREAT ANDAMAN is about 43 leagues long from North to South, and its breadth varies from 6 to 10 leagues. About 5 leagues from the northern extreme of the island, on the east side, is Port Cornwallis, in latitude 13° 20' North, and longitude 92° 51' East, a very good bay and harbour, so named from Admiral Cornwallis, who was anxious to make it a naval station; but the untractable and ferocious disposition of the natives prevented its being brought to a settlement. The dwellings of the natives are the most wretched hovels imaginable; three or four posts stuck in the ground, and fastened together at the top in the form of a cone, over which a kind of thatch is formed with the branches and leaves of trees. The natives are cunning, crafty, and revengeful, and the least civilized of any perhaps in the world.

These islands are covered with wood fit for building and many other purposes; the most common are the poon, dammer, oil, ebony, soondry, and *bindy*: many of them afford timbers and planks fit for the construction of ships, and others might answer for masts. A tree grows here to an enormous size, one having been found to measure 30 feet in circumference, producing a very rich dye, that might be of use in manufacture.

Port Cornwallis abounds in a great variety of fish—mullets, soles, pomfrets, rock fish, skait, gurnets, sable, cockup, seer fish, snappers, &c. likewise prawns, shrimps, and cray fish.

LITTLE ANDAMAN is situated about 30 miles to the southward of the former; is 28 miles long and 17 broad, but does not afford any harbour, though tolerable anchorage may be had near its coast; it is therefore never frequented.

The wild appearance of these islands, and the well-known disposition of the natives, have been the causes which have deterred navigators from visiting them; and they have justly dreaded a shipwreck on them, more than foundering on the ocean: for though it is highly probable that in the course of time many vessels have been wrecked upon their coasts, an instance does not occur of any of the crews being saved, or a single person returning to give an account of such a disaster.

This cluster of islands extends N. N. W. to S. S. E. near 60 leagues, and contains seven principal islands, with eleven or twelve smaller ones. The northernmost bears from the Little Andaman S. 27° E. 29 leagues, and is called

Car Nicobar. It is about six miles long and five broad, very low and level, and appears at a distance as if entirely covered with trees; the island has good soundings every where, free from danger. It is very populous, and the inhabitants are a quiet, honest, and inoffensive people; their houses are generally built upon the beach, in villages of 15 or 20 each, and each house contains a family of 20 persons or upwards. These habitations are raised upon wooden pillars, about 10 feet from the ground: they are round, and having no windows, look like bee-hives covered with thatch; the entry is by a trap-door below, where the family mount by a ladder, which is drawn up at night. The timber on the island is of many sorts, in great plenty, and some of it remarkably large, affording excellent materials for building or repairing ships.

IMPORTS and EXPORTS.

The cocoa-nuts produced on these islands are reckoned the finest in this part of India. Most of the country ships that are bound to Pegu from either of the coasts of India, stop here, in order to procure a cargo of cocoa-nuts, in exchange for which they take the following articles, viz.

Cloth of different colours, hatchets, and hanger blades, which they use to cut the nuts down with: tobacco and arrack they are fond of, but expect these as presents. They have no money of their own, nor will they allow any value to those of other countries, further than as they may happen to fancy them for ornaments; however, they are good judges of gold and silver, and it is no easy matter to impose baser metals on them as such. They purchase a much larger quantity of cloth than is consumed upon their own island, which is intended for the Chowry market, a small island to the southward of theirs, to which a large fleet of their boats sails every year, about the month of November, to exchange cloth for cowries. The village is on the N. E. side of Chowry, abreast of which you may anchor in 20 fathoms, sandy ground.

This island, being very fertile, produces abundance of fruits—oranges, lemons, citrons, bananas, and pine-apples; the only animals are hogs, which are plentiful, remarkably fat, being fed on cocoa-nuts; they have likewise fowls, pigeons, several kinds of wild fowls, excellent yams, and sweet potatoes.

To the southward of Car Nicobar are three small islands—Terressa, Bembocka, and Katchull, which are seldom visited by Europeans. About five miles to the eastward of Katchull is

Noncowry Harbour, one of the best harbours in the East Indies, formed by the islands of Carmorta and Noncowry; it is of very easy access, and will hold 40 sail of large ships, in the greatest security, sheltered from all winds, about half a mile from the shore, with the additional advantage of two entrances, that may serve for going in and out in both monsoons.

Carmorta.—This island, to the northward of the harbour, is about 16 miles long, and in no place above 5 wide; the principal part is on the west side of it, at the foot of a high mountain; the island is almost covered with trees, among which are 3 or 4 sorts of poon, very fit for masts, and for building. Sugar-canes grow here without cultivation; and it produces the finest yams in India, besides several excellent kinds of fruits. Water is got in wells; but in the dry season it is rather scarce, owing to the small number of wells sunk by the natives.

Noncowry, which gives its name to the harbour, is about four miles long on each side, being of a triangular form, and separated from Carmorta by a narrow channel; it affords the same fruits as Carmorta, but is more covered with wood.

In 1756 the Danish East India Company erected a house on this island, to serve as a factory. It stands on the northernmost point within the harbour, where they had a serjeant and three or four soldiers and two cannon, which composed the whole of their establishment; it was soon after evacuated. In 1768 it was re-established; but at present there remain only three or four missionaries, with a view of making proselytes of the natives: they collect cocoa-nut oil, some shells, and other natural curiosities, which they send annually to their brethren at Tranquebar.

At the commencement of the N. E. monsoon, the natives sail in large canoes to Car Nicobar to trade; and for cloth, iron, tobacco, and some other articles, which they obtain from Europeans, they give in exchange the produce of their own island, consisting of cocoa-nuts, oil, canoes, bird's-nests, tortoise-shell, ambergris, &c. With respect to the latter article, which are sometimes met with here, the natives have learned a mode of adulterating it; therefore it is seldom to be met with genuine. Bird's-nests are found among the rocks, and a great variety of beautiful shells are to be met with on the shore. Money being of no use here, the country ships purchase cocoa-nuts, four for a leaf of tobacco, and 100 for a yard of blue calico, and a bottle of cocoa-nut oil for four leaves of tobacco.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Hogs, fowls, and fruit are plentiful; the sea abounds with excellent fish, and the islands are much frequented by turtle. Water is procured from wells at Carmorta, and fire-wood may be got with the greatest ease on any of the islands.

The Great and Little Sambelong are but little known; they are, however, said to be very populous. All the islands, except the Quoin, and some of the smaller ones are inhabited.

STRAIT OF MALACCA.
NICOBAR
ISLANDS
Lt. Sambelong
Lancary I.
Pt PINANG
Larger River
Pt Dinding
Sambelong Is
Salangore
North Sands
Malacca
Pt PANTJOOR
Johore
Redong Isles
Pt Baniack
Hog I.
Tappanooly Bay
Batoa
EQUATOR.
92
94
96
98
100

CHAPTER XXIII.

Malay Peninsula.

Coast of Queda—Purlis—Queda—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Duties—Provisions and Refreshments—Qualla Moorba—Pry River—Pulo Pinang, or Prince of Wales's Island; Description, —Coins, Weights, and Measures—Articles of Import from Europe—Company's Imports from Europe —Commerce with the British Settlements in India—Articles of Import from the Eastward—Articles of Export and their Prices—Import and Export Duties—Company's Revenues and Disbursements—Provisions and Refreshments—Articles procurable at Prince of Wales's Island—Agal Agal—Argus Feathers—Balachong—Bean of St. Ignatius—Beech de Mer—Benjamin—Birds' Nests—Blackwood—Cajeputa Oil—Camphire—Camphire Oil—Canes—Clove Bark—Copper—Cossumba—Dammer—Ejoo—Gold Dust—Gutta Gambir—Kemo Shells—Lignum Aloes—Missoy Bark—Rattans—Sago—Tin—Wax—Wood Oil—Pera—Salangore Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Provisions and Refreshments—Malacca; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Provisions and Refreshments—Johore—Bintang—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Pahang—Coins and Weights—Imports and Exports—Duties—Packanga River—Coins and Weights—Imports and Exports—Tringano—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Duties—Provisions and Refreshments—Redang Islands—Patany—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Calantan River—Ligore.

THE coast between Junkceylon and Queda is fronted by numerous islands of various sizes, and inside most of the groups, and between them, there are passages for small vessels, but large ships generally sail outside. The country of Queda extends from the River Trang, in 7° 30′ North, to that of Carian in 5° 10′ North; its length is about 150 miles, and its breadth from 20 to 35 miles. From Trang to Purlis the coast is sheltered by many islands and sandbanks navigable for small vessels only; the entire country is exceedingly well watered, and fertile. Twenty-three rivers, all navigable for proas, and many of them for larger vessels, empty themselves into the sea; the principal of which is

PURLIS.

This river is deep and narrow, at the entrance of which is a small sandy island, on which stands a fishing village, protected by a few pieces of cannon: the bar of the river is very long, with only ten feet water upon it at spring tides; the town is situated 4 or 5 miles from this entrance, in a valley encompassed with steep hills. The old King of Queda in his latter days chose this place for his residence, which occa-

sioned many people to resort here; but since his death it has sunk into its former obscurity. Pulo Ladda and several other islands lie to the westward of this port, about 5 leagues. The Great Ladda is inhabited by a race of Malays, who are in general great thieves, and commit frequent acts of piracy. There is exceeding good anchorage on the eastern side of them, of sufficient capacity for the largest fleet, with a plentiful supply of wood and water at hand. On the S. W. side is a harbour, where the French refitted and masted, after an engagement with Commodore Barnet in 1745.

QUEDA.

The principal seaport, is called Qualla Batrang, and is in latitude 6° North. The river is navigable for vessels of 300 tons, but its entrance is choked up by a mud bank, 2½ miles in length, with about 12 feet water in spring tides. Large ships anchor about 4 miles off, in 5 or 6 fathoms, the entrance of the river bearing E. N. E. and a mountain called the Elephant N. E. At the mouth of the river is a small brick fortress, with a few guns; the greater part of the fort is in ruins, so that the spring tides flow into it. The river is about 300 yards wide; both shores are muddy, and have swampy plains covered with jungle. Seven miles up the river is Allestar, where the King resides; all vessels that pass the bar, can go to Allestar: the river is narrow, but deep. The King's residence is in a small brick fort; the inhabitants near him are composed of Chulias, Chinese, and Malays. This place was plundered and burnt by the Buggesses in 1770; since which it has continued in a very poor state.

Queda contains about 300 houses, inhabited by Chinese, Chulias, and Malays. It was formerly a place of considerable trade; but since the establishment at Pulo Pinang, the Malay proas have carried the greater part of their trade there, for the European and country ships bound to China.

The following account of the mode of transacting business is extracted from Elmore's Directory.

"When going on shore, you land on the east side of the river, and the Captain Chinaman will report your arrival to the Shabundar, who will introduce you to the King. You must not neglect to carry a present with you, according to the quantity of goods you expect to sell, which will be but small, Queda being constantly well supplied from Pulo Pinang. However, your present should be genteel; and do not forget the Captain Chinaman and Shabundar, as they can be of great service to you, and inform you of all the customs, as well as the markets, and whether any thing is likely to be done. The King, like most other Malay Princes, engrosses almost the whole foreign trade of the port, excepting that of an annual Chinese junk, which used to come here regularly, that pays a certain sum only as duty, and then has leave to trade freely with the inhabitants."

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Spanish dollars are the principal coin. All goods are weighed by the China dotchin, or wooden steelyards; but English scales and weights are in common use. The bahar is 424 lbs. avoirdupois.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—Opium and Spanish dollars form the principal part of the cargoes of the country ships. For the latter you are certain of procuring goods, if any are to be had; and frequently a few chests of opium will bring a good price. The Chinese junks import coarse China-ware in considerable quantities, thin irons, pans, gongs, white and blue cloths, and other articles suitable to the Malay market.

EXPORTS.—The chief produce of Queda is tin; but beech de mer, bees wax, birds'-nests, cautch or terra Japonica, dammer, fish-maws, rice, rattans, and shark's-fins, are to be procured in their way to China. These compose the return cargo of the Chinese junk, and of the few country ships which visit this place.

DUTIES.

The duties here are 2¼ per cent. and the most reasonable of any port on the Malay Coast, or to the eastward, and fewer impositions; but presents are necessary to the King and principal men.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Bullocks, with poultry of various kinds, fruits, and vegetables, are in abundance. Very good water is procured from the river, at an inconsiderable expence.

QUALLA MOORBA

Is about 18 miles to the southward of Queda; it is a large river, deep and rapid; the water here is always fresh to the sea; the heavy surge, which breaks upon this shore during the S. W. monsoon, has, by opposing the current from the river, formed a dangerous sandbank, extending three miles out to sea, and on which there is only one fathom water. This river is, however, convenient, on account of its situation with the tin mines. The annual produce here is about 1000 peculs; this small quantity is not, however, owing to the scarcity of ore, but to the want of hands, and to the few people employed, being badly paid.

PRY RIVER

Is abreast the north point of Pulo Pinang; it has a mud bar, with 12 or 13 feet water on it in spring tides. In 1790 the King of Queda constructed a fort, and assembled a number of forces and proas for an attack upon Pulo Pinang. The English landed there, took the fort by assault, and destroyed most of the vessels. In 1800, a district of land on the banks of this river, 18 miles in length, and 3 in breadth, was ceded by the King of Queda to the East India Company in perpetuity, for which they agreed to pay him 10,000 dollars per annum. The town, which is situated at the entrance of the river, was previously a receptacle for vagrants of every description; but a number of people having resorted thither, it is expected that many beneficial consequences will arise from the acquisition.

PRINCE OF WALES'S ISLAND.

This island, called by the Malays Pulo Pinang, extends from latitude 5° 16′ to 5° 30′ North; it is of an irregular four-sided figure, the north side being the longest, and the south the shortest; it is near 5 leagues in length, and 7 or 8 miles in breadth. The N.W. end of the island is high uneven land; and excepting the south part, and the eastern side, where the town is built, and where there is a considerable tract of low land cultivated contiguous to the sea, the rest of the island is all high, and covered with trees. About five miles west from the fort stands a mountain, on which signals are displayed for ships approaching the island: it is 2,170 feet above the sea.

Prince of Wales's Island is separated from the Malay Peninsula by a narrow strait about two miles broad, which forms the harbour, and affords excellent anchorage for the largest ships: there is also an inner harbour, where ships may receive every kind of repair that can be performed, without going into dock.

Fort Cornwallis is built on the N. E. point of the island, and is in latitude 5° 24′ North, and longitude 100° 21′ East; it was originally badly constructed, and large sums have been spent upon it without completing it. On the west face there never has been any rampart; there is no parapet except on the four bastions at the angles; the ditch is narrow, and fordable in every part. The fort is incapable of defence;

from its size, construction, and situation, a 74 gun ship could anchor within pistol shot, and from their tops drive away the men from their guns. No fort of any strength can be erected on the site of the present one, without destroying one half the town in order to form a glacis. In the fort are barracks for the military, the arsenal, magazine, and military storehouses. The sea has of late years made encroachments on the north face of the fort, and along the esplanade, and for upwards of a mile in that direction.

The town, called George Town by the English, and Panjang Panaique by the Malays, is of considerable extent; it is bounded on the north and east by the sea, on the south by a small river, and on the west by the high road. The streets, which cross each other at right angles, are spacious and airy; but having been at first merely lined out, without being either raised or drained, were frequently impassable after hard rain. This inconvenience has been removed, as the principal streets are now properly raised and drained, and the town has in consequence improved much in appearance and cleanliness. There is a large pier for landing and shipping goods, to which fresh water is conducted by pipes.

Since the island has become the seat of Government, considerable alterations have taken place in every department. A Government house, a church, a jail, and several substantial bridges have been built; the fortifications have been improved and strengthened, and the public roads repaired and widened.

Pulo Pinang was originally granted to the East India Company by the King of Queda, at the request of Captain Francis Light of the Country service, who had married his daughter. The Bengal Government seeing the island so peculiarly adapted as a mercantile station for vessels from all the Malay ports, the Moluccas, Borneo, Celebes, and the Phillippine Islands, did not hesitate to accept the King of Queda's grant; conceiving that, by an establishment properly secured, the Bengal trade with that of China would be connected, and from the conduct of the Dutch, it became necessary to have a port where the Country ships might meet the Eastern merchants, as well for the promotion of that valuable commerce, as to afford a windward station of refreshment and repair to the King's, the Company's, and the country ships. A small detachment was accordingly sent from Calcutta, under the command of Captain Light, who took possession of the island, in the name of His Majesty, and for the use of the East India Company, on the 12th of August, 1786, and immediately commenced clearing the country, and began the construction of a small fort for the protection of the detachment against any attempts of the Malay powers, who might be instigated by the Dutch at Malacca, or induced by the fickleness of their own disposition, to cut them off. Captain Light was authorized to receive such colonists as he might judge expedient; to allot such a portion of land to each family as circumstances would admit; and, as an encouragement to trade, the port was made free to all nations.

In a very short space of time numerous adventurers flocked to the settlement, some with the intention of remaining, others merely with a view of traffic. These finding a ready sale for their goods, and meeting with the merchandise they required in return, the commerce of the port rapidly increased. A town, called George Town, was marked out, and within the year there were upwards of sixty Chinese families living in it, besides great numbers of Malays, Buggesses, and other Eastern traders. The settlements continued in a progressive state of improvement, both in regard to its population and cultivation.

In the year 1797 there were 6937 inhabitants on the island, exclusive of Europeans and the garrison; and in 1801 they had increased to 10,310. Previous to 1805, the government of the island had been considered merely as of a temporary nature. It had long been the intention of the Company to establish a regular system of administration for the island, but from various causes it was not formed. Although from the spirit of British rule, even when imperfectly administered, industry, enterprise, and improvement appeared to a great extent on the island, and its population, produce, and commerce were very respectable, yet the growth of the colony had in many ways been impeded by the want of regular government and laws; and as the inhabitants had become more numerous, that want had been more felt and complained of.

In 1805 the Court of Directors, having taken into their consideration the position of the island, its fertility, its harbour, its produce of large timber, its contiguity to Pegu, which contains the most abundant teak forests in Asia, and which had long pointed it out as an acquisition of very great importance in a commercial and political view, being placed in a most favourable situation for an emporium of commerce in the Eastern seas, and for becoming a commanding station for the rendezvous, refitting, and supply of that portion of His Majesty's Navy required for the protection of the Company's possessions and affairs in the Eastern parts of Asia, had resolved to new model the government, and to place the island under the same form of government as the Company's other settlements in India enjoyed; when the Board of Admiralty laid before them a plan for the building and repairing His Majesty's ships, which gave a new and high degree of importance to the subject, and rendered the projected reform in the government absolutely indispensable. Accordingly the island was formed into a regular government, with the following establishments and appointments, and the salaries and allowances annexed thereto, viz.

	Per Annum.
Governor and Treasurer	Dollars 32,000
Ditto for rent, till a house was built	4,000
Second in Council, warehouse-keeper and paymaster	18,000
Third in Council, superintendent of marine, naval, and military storekeeper	18,000
Fourth in Council and Commandant	18,000
Chaplain	6,400
Secretary	8,000
Assistant Secretary	6,000
Accountant and Auditor	8,000
Assistant Accountant and Auditor	6,000
Sub-warehouse-keeper, and deputy paymaster	6,000
Collector of customs, and land revenue	6,000
Assistant to the superintendent and storekeeper of marine, and paymaster	6,000
Surgeon	10,720
First assistant ditto	3,000
Second assistant ditto	3,000
Ten writers, each	1,440
Master Attendant	3,600
Clerk and schoolmaster	900

The whole of the persons filling the before-mentioned offices are restricted by law from trade, agency, and from being planters for exportation.

To the plan of the First Lord of the Admiralty, for making the island a naval arsenal, and constructing docks for the building and repairing of His Majesty's ships, the Company agreed to afford the utmost aid in their power to carry it into execution. It however appears that in 1808 His Majesty's Ministers were desirous of ascertaining correctly, by the construction and actual cost of one or more ships of war at Prince of Wales's Island, whether the system might reasonably be expected to be permanently beneficial to the public service; and the Company, in that state of uncertainty as to the intentions of Government, being unwilling to incur any considerable expence in the construction of an arsenal or docks, until they were satisfied that such works would really be essential to the public interest, deemed it expedient to reduce the establishment of the island to what was considered requisite for it as an important commercial entrepôt, and a separate Presidency, under the management of a Governor and Council.

Since the above period, ship-building has been carried on to a considerable extent. A frigate has been built for His Majesty's service, a ship of 1200 tons for the service of the East India Company, besides several ships for the Country trade; but for the supply of that which is most essential, namely the teak, recourse must be had to Pegu, from whence the expence of obtaining and transporting it is considerable.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Coins.—Accounts are kept by the Company in Spanish dollars, copangs, and pice; 10 pice making 1 copang, and 10 copangs 1 Spanish dollar.

The merchants keep their accounts in Spanish dollars and cents. The current pice are coined on the island, being pieces of tin, nearly the size of an English penny; they have the Company's mark on one side, and are flat on the other; 100 of them ought to contain 4½ catties of pure tin.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—Weighable goods in the wholesale are chiefly sold by the China pecul; they are weighed with English weights, and afterwards turned into peculs and catties.

The English yard is in common use, and piece-goods are bought and sold by the corge.

IMPORTS.

The European articles imported, either in the direct China ships, or from the other Presidencies, are as follow, but in small quantities, as the settlement contains few Europeans, and is soon overstocked.

Ale, in casks.	Claret.	Haberdashery.	Oilman's stores.
Anchors & grapnails.	Cloths & cassimere.	Hawsers.	Painters' colours.
Blacking.	Copper, sheet.	Hock.	Plated ware.
Blocks.	Ditto, nails.	Hosiery.	Porter, in casks.
Books & pamphlets.	Cutlery.	Iron, in bars.	Port wine.
Boots and shoes.	Confectionary.	Ironmongery.	Provisions, salt.
Bunting of colours.	Engines, fire.	Lead, in sheets.	Saddlery.
Brandy.	Gin, Hollands.	Looking glasses.	Ship-chandlery.
Cables.	Garden seeds.	Madeira wine.	Shot, patent.
Cabinet ware.	Guns and pistols.	Lace, gold.	Steel.
Chintz & muslinets.	Gunpowder.	Musical instruments	Stationery.
Canvas, No. 1 to 4.	Glass ware.	Mathematical ditto.	Tin ware.
Cards.	Hats.	Nails, of sizes.	Watches.

Since the island has become a separate Government, the East India Company have sent out large quantities of British goods for sale, principally woollens, iron, steel, &c. The following is an account of the goods and stores imported from England on their account, in six years, 1804–5 to 1809–10 inclusive.

1804–5	£76,748	1807–8	£76,350
1805–6	27,589	1808–9	60,600
1806–7	40,624	1809–10	38,253

Of the imports in 1807–8 £46,783 consisted of woollens of various descriptions.

Large quantities of Bengal and Madras piece-goods are imported for the Malay trade, and the consumption of the resident Europeans, of the following kinds:

Baftas.	Gurrahs.	Kincobs.	Surashes.
Chintz.	Ginghams.	Long cloths.	Soosies.
Curwars.	Hummums.	Mamoodies.	Salempores.
Dooties.	Handkerchiefs.	Palempores.	Sannoes.
Dimities.	Izarees.	Punjum cloths.	Taffaties.

These articles are chiefly supplied by the different houses of agency at Madras and Bengal, and the native merchants, who make annual trips to this place with adventures of piece-goods; it is therefore seldom the commanders of the Company's ships, bound from India to China, deal in them, as they have not an opportunity of purchasing at a fair market price.

The other articles imported from the British settlements into Prince of Wales's Island and places to the eastward, are enumerated in the following statement.

COMMERCE WITH THE BRITISH SETTLEMENTS IN INDIA.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Prince of Wales's Island and places to the eastward from the British settlements, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported to the British settlements during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted.

IMPORTS FROM INDIA.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	52,64,541	3,97,390	56,61,931
1803	36,03,527	83,490	36,87,017
1804	34,02,699	32,685	34,35,384
1805	46,38,399	——	46,38,399
1806	36,70,316	97,124	37,67,440
Total.	205,79,482	6,10,689	221,90,171

EXPORTS TO INDIA.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	29,99,858	15,86,353	45,86,211
1803	29,97,047	11,86,157	41,83,204
1804	22,11,054	11,07,870	36,18,924
1805	24,20,009	20,54,308	44,74,317
1806	24,48,421	26,45,979	50,94,400
Total.	130,76,389	88,80,667	219,57,056

Articles of Import in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees	17,52,070
Raw silk		1,60,318
Grain		1,61,820
Opium		21,25,309
Cotton		1,02,710
Sandal wood		7,200
Drugs		2,115
Wine		740
Iron		7,980
Canvas and gunnies		22,136
Carriages and palanequins		19,660
Ginger		4,500
Sugar		4,807
Carpets and blankets		4,736
Sundries		58,531
Imports re-exported, viz.		
Wine and liquors		1,18,183
Metals		10,293
Hosiery		2,046
Iron and ironmongery		29,271
Broad cloth		9,165
Anchors		4,854
Sundries		30,073
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	46,38,399

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees	24,214
Benjamin		1,61,562
Beetle-nut		4,46,059
Pepper		9,97,262
Rattans		8,037
Spices		1,10,933
Wax		6,802
Metals		1,94,553
Tutenague		92,396
Cochineal		20,224
Agala wood		58,651
Sapan wood		10,917
Timber		9,657
Mother o'pearl shells		5,912
Cubebs		6,240
China ware		2,430
Liquors		9,711
Sugar		31,742
Elephants' teeth		26,216
Cordage		2,576
Beads		2,576
Sundries		1,24,194
Treasure		20,54,308
Exports from Batavia		66,845
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	44,74,317

Merchandise imported into Pulo Pinang and the eastward, including Batavia and Malacca, from the British settlements in India, in the years 1802 to 1806	Sicca Rupees	205,79,482
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		130,76,389
Imports exceed the exports		75,03,093
Treasure exported to the British settlements during the above period	Sicca Rupees	88,80,667
Ditto imported from ditto		6,10,689
		82,69,978
Balance *in favour* of the British settlements	Sicca Rupees	157,73,071

The Malay proas from the various ports on Sumatra, on the Malay Peninsula, and from the islands to the eastward as far as New Guinea, import the following commodities:

Arrack, Java.	Cloves.	Gutta Gambir	Rattans.
Beech de mer.	Ditto, oil of.	Gold-dust.	Ditto, ground.
Beetle-nut.	Canes.	Mace.	Redwood.
Benjamin.	Camphire.	Ditto, oil of.	Spars.
Brimstone.	Clove bark.	Nutmegs.	Sago.
Birds' nests.	Cajeputa oil.	Ditto, oil of.	Stick-lac.
Blackwood.	Dammer.	Precious stones.	Tin.
Birds of Paradise.	Diamonds.	Pearls.	Timber.
Bezoar stones.	Dragons' blood.	Pepper.	Tortoise-shell.
Cutch.	Elephants' teeth.	Rice.	Wax.

From China are brought the following articles for the Malays, and the use of the Europeans and Chinese:

China-ware.	Fireworks.	Sugar.	Toys.
China camphire.	Iron utensils.	Sweetmeats.	Tutenague.
Copper-ware.	Lackered ware.	Silk piece-goods.	Umbrellas.
China-root.	Nankeens.	Tea.	Wearing apparel.

EXPORTS.

The only articles of trade produced on the island are pepper and beetle-nut, of the former of which large quantities are grown, to the extent of near 20,000 peculs per annum; these, with the articles before enumerated, form the list of exports, the following of which are the principal to China, their prices on the island varying according to the demand:

Beech de mer, black	15 to 20 dollars per pecul.	Dammer	2 to 3 dollars per pecul.
Ditto, white	10 to 12 ditto ... ditto.	Dragon's blood	30 to 40 ditto ... ditto.
Beetle-nut	4 to 5 ditto ... ditto.	Elephants' teeth	according to size.
Birds' nests, head	18 to 20 ditto per catty.	Gold-dust	18 to 24 dollars per buncal
Ditto, belly	10 to 12 ditto ... ditto.	Nutmegs	180 to 250 ditto per pecul.
Ditto, foot	4 to 6 ditto ... ditto.	Pepper	12 to 14 ditto ... ditto.
Blackwood	3 to 4 ditto per pecul.	Rattans	15 to 18 ditto per 100 bdls.
Brimstone	3 to 5 ditto ... ditto.	Sago	3 to 4 ditto per pecul.
Camphire, head	18 to 24 ditto per catty.	Tin	15 to 18 ditto ... ditto.
Ditto, belly	10 to 15 ditto ... ditto.	Tortoise-shell	according to quality.
Ditto, foot	3 to 6 ditto ... ditto.	Terra Japonica	6 to 8 dollars per pecul.
Cloves	140 to 170 ditto per pecul.	Wax	14 to 18 ditto ... ditto.

To the above prices are to be added the duty and boat-hire, which it is customary for the purchaser to pay, unless an agreement is made to the contrary. The resident merchants frequently send their goods on freight to China. Should the commanders of ships calling here not be inclined to purchase, in which they are generally guided by the China price current, the rates of freight usually are,

Pepper ..... 10 per cent. on the sales	Tin ..... 4 per cent. on the sales
Ditto allowance for waste .. 4 per cent.	Camphire ..... 2 ..... ditto

IMPORT DUTIES.

The following are the established duties to be levied on all imports and exports, viz.

I. On the invoice price of all European goods imported on British ships and vessels, not having previously paid Government duties at any British port in India..... 5 per cent.

II. On the invoice price of all European goods imported on all foreign ships and vessels, with the exception of Americans, who are to pay as British..... 8 per cent.

III. On the invoice of all China goods imported on British ships and vessels at Malacca .. 3 per cent.

As an inducement for the Portuguese Macao ships to resort to the port, as necessary to the accommodation of the Chinese inhabitants, Portuguese ships and vessels from Macao are to pay as British ships ..... 3 per cent.

All other European foreigners, not herein excepted, to pay ..... 6 per cent.

IV. The farming the duties on salt, tobacco, ghee, hog's lard, and squared timber, is discontinued; and the following duties on imports will be collected at the Custom House in lieu thereof, viz.

On salt ..... dollars 5 per coyan

On oil, ghee, hogs' lard, and tobacco, ad valorem..... 5 per cent.

Notwithstanding those articles may have previously paid export duties in the British settlements to the westward of the mouths of the river Arucan; and these articles are to pay the same duties, though brought from countries to the eastward of the mouths of that river.

European foreigners to pay double the above duties in both cases.

V. On the invoice price of all other goods and merchandise imported on all British ships and vessels from countries to the westward of the mouths of the river Aracan, not having previously paid export duties at any British settlement..... 4 per cent.

All foreigners (with the exception of the Americans) are to pay thereon ..... 8 per cent.

N.B. Opium, grain, money, bullion, gold-dust, and precious stones, to be imported duty free.

VI. Goods and merchandise imported on British or American ships and vessels from the Dutch and Spanish possessions to the eastward of the river Arucan, to pay a duty on the invoice of ..... 4 per cent.

Foreign ships and vessels to pay double, or ..... 8 per cent.

EXPORT DUTIES.

VII. On exports two and a half per cent. ad valorem, on the prices, as monthly settled by a committee appointed to compile a price current for that purpose, to be collected on all goods and merchandise, of whatever description, exported from Prince of Wales's Island ..... 2½ per cent.

N.B. Gold bullion, gold-dust, and precious stones to be exported duty free.

VIII. Opium and cotton transshipped in the harbour of Port Cornwallis, or cotton landed and reshipped on account of the original proprietor, to pay on the gross invoice .. 1½ per cent.

IX. All other goods and merchandise transshipped, without changing owners, shall in no case be liable to more on the gross invoice than ..... 2 per cent.

X. All goods and merchandise changing owners, and transshipped within the harbour, are to pay duties as if actually landed, and sold on shore.

N.B. These three last articles are applicable to all prizes and recaptures.

The port-charges are, anchorage 28 Spanish dollars, and a port-clearance 2 Spanish dollars.

The following is a statement of the revenues and disbursements of Prince of Wales's Island, in the years 1805–6 to 1810–11 inclusive; taken from the accounts annually laid before the House of Commons by the East India Company.

Years.	Revenue and Customs.	CHARGES.			Total of Charges.	Charges exceed Revenues.
		Civil.	Military.	Buildings, &c.		
	Spanish Dollars.	Spanish Dollars.	Spanish Dollars.	Spanish Dollars.	Spanish Dollars.	Spanish Dollars.
1805–6	116,396	266,105	140,348	44,251	450,704	334,308
1806–7	227,306	370,551	156,425	13,337	540,313	313,007
1807–8	228,192	347,979	173,450	12,305	533,734	305,542
1808–9	315,346	252,229	213,966	75,345	541,540	226,194
1809–10	281,487	397,975	241,615	65,712	705,302	423,815
1810–11	302,000	327,549	214,793	64,100	606,442	304,442

By which it appears that the expenditure exceeded the revenue in the sum of 1,907,308 Spanish dollars, which, at 5s. each, are £476,827 sterling, on an average of six years £79,471 per annum.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Bullocks are to be had for the ship's crew at the rate of 10 lbs. for a Spanish dollar. Poultry and vegetables are in abundance and cheap, 8 to 10 fowls for a dollar, and a like number of ducks. Sheep are imported from Bengal, and are consequently dear. Goats are procured from the Peninsula and Sumatra, and when of a proper age, the meat is good. There are also various kinds of tropical fruits; and the harbour abounds with fish of an excellent quality.

Ships were formerly supplied with water from the river, which is about a mile to the southward of the town; but it was attended with considerable delay, as the boats employed were obliged to go into the river at flood-tide, and wait till half ebb before they began to fill the water; they were therefore obliged to remain for the flood to carry them out. As the men employed in the water-boats were very careless, frequent complaints were made of the quality of the water, owing to the casks having been filled too soon. To obviate those inconveniences, the water has been brought in pipes to the pier-head, where boats may have their casks filled with a hose from the cocks on the wharf, at the expence of a Spanish dollar per butt.

The following is a list of articles procurable at Prince of Wales's Island, which are imported by the coasting vessels from the surrounding countries, and are chiefly calculated for the China market.

AGAL AGAL

Is a species of sea-weed, in which some trade is carried on by the Chinese. It is dissoluble into a glutinous substance like congee; its principal use is for gumming silks and paper, as nothing equals it for paste, and it is not liable to be eaten by insects. They make a beautiful kind of lanthorn, formed of netted thread, washed over with this gum, and which is extremely light and transparent.

ARGUS FEATHERS.

The Sumatra or Argus Pheasant is a bird of uncommon magnificence and beauty, the plumage being perhaps the most rich, without any mixture of gaudiness, of all the feathered race. It is about the size of a cock turkey, and is extremely difficult to be kept alive for any considerable time after it is caught, never more than a month. Of the wing-feathers the nine outer ones are pale yellow brown,

marked with small dusky spots as big as tares on the outer, and smaller spots of white on the inner webs; the eleven remaining quills are dark brown, marked with round and oblong spots on both webs, and on the outer, near the shaft, a row of large eyes, from 12 to 15 in number, the largest an inch in diameter, somewhat resembling those in a peacock's train. The tail consists of 14 feathers; the two middle are three feet in length, the next 18 inches, and gradually shortened to the outer ones, which are 12 inches only in length; the colour is dusky brown dotted with white, and the two middle have round white spots, encircled with black on the outer, and brown irregular ones surrounded with dusky on the inner web. The feathers used to be much esteemed in England, but at present are little regarded.

The duty on all feathers, except those of the ostrich, are permanent £37 10*s.* and war duty £12 10*s.* making in the whole £50 per cent.

BALACHANG

Is a species of caviar, esteemed a great delicacy by the Malays, and forms an article of trade amongst them, and to some parts of India. To Europeans it is very offensive, particularly the black kind, which is the most common. The best sort, or the red balachang, is made of the spawn of shrimps, or of the shrimps themselves; they are, after boiling, exposed to the sun to dry, then pounded in a mortar with salt, moistened with a little water, and formed into cakes, which is the whole process. The black sort, used by the lower class, is made of small fish prepared in the same manner.

BEAN OF ST. IGNATIUS.

The article so called is the small solid seed of a fruit of the gourd kind, growing in some of the Eastern islands, and in which the Chinese trade. The figure of this seed is irregular; it is nearly the size of a small nutmeg, with a musky scent when fresh, and a taste somewhat bitter. Its external colour is grey, but it inclines to black when stripped of the thin skin which invests it; the inside resembles a dark coloured jelly, but it is of as hard a consistence as horn, so that it is difficult to cut or break it. If grated (which is the easiest way of using it), it appears white in those places touched by the points of the grater, which deceives those who see it of that colour; it must be cut through the middle with a knife driven by a hammer or mallet, in order to view its natural colour.

BEECH DE MER,

Or sea-slug, is an article of trade from the Eastern islands to China, where it is considered as highly nourishing, and is used in soups, &c. It very much resembles the large garden-slug in appearance, but is considerably larger, some weighing half a pound each. It is of two kinds, the black and white; the black is what we commonly see, and is reputed the best; the white is larger than the black, and one particular kind of it is said to be more esteemed in China. It should be chosen in large pieces, well dried, and care taken that the worm is not in it.

BENJAMIN GUM,

Or Benzoin, is the concrete resinous juice of a tree growing on Sumatra; the tree does not grow to any considerable size, and is of no value as timber. When the trees have attained the age of seven years, and are six or eight inches in diameter, incisions are made in the bark, from whence the gum exudes, which is carefully pared off. It is denominated head, belly, and foot.

Head is the purest of the gum, that which comes from the incisions during the first three years, and is white, inclining to yellow, soft, and fragrant:—this is again divided into Europe and India head, of which the first is superior, and is the only sort adapted to the home market; the latter, with most

of the inferior sorts, are exported to China, and to various parts of India and Arabia, where it is burned to perfume their temples, houses, &c.

Belly is what comes from the incisions after the first three years, and is of a reddish yellow, inclining to brown, harder than the former, and less fragrant; at length when the tree, which will not bear a repetition of the process for more than ten or twelve years, is supposed to be worn out, they cut it down to procure the

Foot, or third sort, which is obtained by splitting the tree in pieces, when worn out by the former process, and scraping up the gum, which is dark coloured, hard, and mixed more or less with parings of the wood and other impurities. Benjamin is brought down from the country for sale in large cakes, called tompongs, covered with mats; and these, as a staple commodity, are employed in their dealings as a standard of value, to which the price of other things has reference, as in most parts of the world to certain metals. In order to pack it in chests, it is necessary to soften the coarser parts with boiling water; for the finer, it is sufficient to expose it to the heat of the sun.

Benjamin, for the home market, should be chosen full of clear, light coloured, and white spots, having the appearance of white marble when broken; it is seldom to be met with in so pure a state, therefore the nearer it approaches to it, the better. If it is of a brownish colour, it should be clear and pure, and when broken, appear somewhat like rosin, and as free from dirt and other impurities as possible: it has very little taste, impressing on the palate only a slight sweetness; when rubbed or heated, it is extremely agreeable, and when set on fire, it diffuses a fragrant smell.

The following are the quantities imported and sold at the East India Company's sales, in the years 1803 to 1808 inclusive, together with the sale amount, and average price per cwt.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.		Aver. per Cwt.		
	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	£	s.	d.
1803	—	—	456	4412	456	4412	9	13	6
1804	218	2464	137	1614	355	4078	11	10	0
1805	215	1114	199	4561	414	5675	13	14	2
1806	105	908	3	37	108	940	8	14	0
1807	70	1925	5	29	75	1954	26	0	0
1808	379	5799	87	1874	466	7673	16	9	9

20 cwt. of gum Benjamin are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is £5 12s. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty £1 17s. 4d. making in the whole £7 9s. 4d. per cwt.

BIRDS' NESTS

Are much celebrated as a peculiar luxury of the table, especially amongst the Chinese; they are found in caves on the sea-coast of Sumatra, more particularly towards its southern extremity, on the Island of Java, and on many of the Eastern islands. The bird which constructs them, resembles the swallow. The nests differ from each other in size, thickness, colour, and weight; their diameter is commonly three fingers in breadth at the top, and their perpendicular depth in the middle seldom exceeds an inch. The substance of these nests is white, inclining to red, somewhat transparent; their thickness is little more than that of a silver spoon, and their weight is from a quarter to half an ounce. They are very brittle, and have a shining gummy appearance internally, when broken, and are wrinkled, or slightly furrowed, on the surface. They are of three denominations, *viz.*

Head.—The cleanest and best are almost as white as writing paper, and as transparent as isinglass, having only a few downy feathers hanging about them. This is the kind which suits the China market,

and is the only sort which should be taken. In purchasing them, be careful that they are perfectly dry; if so crisp as to break, it is the better, because they then weigh light; they are frequently damped to make them heavy, and are then tough and pliable. They are generally packed one with another, to the length of 12 or 15 inches, and secured with split rattans, to prevent their breaking. Always open the bundles before you weigh them, or you will have a good deal of dirt amongst them.

Belly are of a darker colour, yellowish, but clear of dirt, and may with pains be made nearly equal to the head, by picking out the feathers, washing the dirt off, and laying them in the dew at night; but if left for the sun to shine on, they grow yellower, and spoil.

Foot are very dirty and dark coloured, having many feathers in them; this sort should be rejected, as they are not saleable at China.

On the Island of Java alone about 20 peculs are annually procured, and sent to China; they are sometimes brought in small quantities to Europe as presents.

BLACK-WOOD

Is procured in various parts of India and the Eastern islands, but the best is from the Mauritius. It is in logs of various sizes, sometimes 12 inches in diameter; but those trees which are about six inches, and long and straight, are preferred. It should be chosen free from cracks, and not worm-eaten or decayed, having the bark and white wood carefully cleaned off. There is a wood called milk-wood, somewhat resembling it on the outside, which is sometimes imported instead of it. It is striped black and white, and of little use; whereas black-wood is in regular demand.

CAJEPUTA OIL.

The tree which furnishes this oil, is found in the Moluccas, and other islands in the Eastern seas. It is a medicine in great estimation amongst the Malays, and is said to be obtained by distillation. The best is procured at the Island of Bouro; it is generally of a greenish colour, but sometimes nearly white and clear, very limpid, lighter than water, of a strong volatile smell, resembling camphire and cardamums mixed, and a strong pungent taste, like that of the latter. It is said that if a drop of genuine cajeputa oil be rubbed on the temples, it will occasion a pungent pain in the eyes with a discharge of tears. That which is dark coloured, and not perfectly soluble in spirits of wine, should be rejected. It is sometimes imported as an article of trade. In the March sale, 1807, 1102 ounces sold for £240.

The permanent duty on cajeputa oil is 1s. 6d. per ounce, and the war duty 6d. per ounce.

CAMPHIRE NATIVE,

Or Camphire Baroos, from the place of its growth, is a solid unctuous concrete, obtained from a tree growing on the northern part of the Island of Sumatra. The tree grows without cultivation in the woods lying near the sea-coast, and is frequently found upwards of 15 feet in circumference, and high in proportion.

For carpenters' work the wood is much esteemed, being easy to work, light, durable, and not liable to be injured by insects, and retaining a pleasant and agreeable smell. The leaf is small, of a roundish oval, the fibres running straight and parallel to each other, and terminating in a remarkably long and slender point.

The camphire is found in the state in which we see it, in natural fissures or crevices of the wood, but does not exhibit any external appearance by which its existence can be previously ascertained; and the persons whose employment it is to collect it, usually cut down a number of trees before they find one that contains a sufficient quantity to repay their labour; it is said that not a tenth part of the number felled is

productive either of camphire or camphire oil, although the latter is less rare: this scarcity tends to enhance the price. The tree, when cut down, is divided transversely into several blocks, and these again are split with wedges into small pieces, from the interstices of which the camphire, if any there be, is extracted. It is distinguished into three sorts:

Head.—This is the sort which comes readily away in large flakes, almost transparent, somewhat like crystals of saltpetre, free from dust, dirt, or other impurities.

Belly consists of small flakes, mixed with that which is brownish, but transparent, something resembling rosin coarsely powdered, with few sticks and straws in it.

Foot resembles dark coloured rosin, is chiefly scraped from the wood, and often mixed with it, having a number of shining particles in it; the more of them the better.

The mode of separating the camphire from its impurities is by washing; it is then passed through sieves or screens of different sizes, in order to make the assortment, so far as it depends upon the size of the grains; but much of the selection is also made by hand, and particular care is taken to distinguish, from the more genuine kinds, that which is produced by an artificial concretion of the essential oil. The method usually observed in purchasing it, is to take four sieves and a catty of camphire out of each sort, in the following proportions:

	Tales.	Mace.
1st sort..... capallo, or large head	2	2 weight
2d ditto ..... capallo cachell, or small head	3	5
3d ditto ..... baddan, or belly	4	2
4th ditto ..... cakee, or foot	6	1
Making in the whole ..... Tales	16	0 equal to one catty.

The whole quantity annually brought down for sale on the western side, does not exceed 50 peculs. The price varies according to the demand, from 8 to 12 dollars per catty for the head camphire; the others in proportion. The head should be chosen in thin white scales, about the breadth of a nail, which is mixed with two or three sizes smaller, the smallest much resembling sea sand in grain and colour; the more of the first sort, the more valuable. If the first was sold separate at China, it would be worth from 20 to 25 tales per catty. It should be of a strong, fragrant, and penetrating smell, of a bitterish aromatic taste, softening under the teeth, and accompanied with a sense of coolness. It is proved by putting it in water; if good, it will swim on the surface; if adulterated, it will sink. Particular care should be taken in packing it, or it will evaporate, and lose much of its weight.

This kind of camphire is also produced on the Island of Borneo, of which about 30 peculs are annually exported; and it is said to be held in greater estimation by the Chinese than that of Sumatra, the whole of which is sent to the China market, the camphire imported into England being the produce of China, and is described hereafter.

CAMPHIRE OIL.

This valuable commodity is not manufactured, undergoes no preparation, and, though termed an oil, is rather a liquid and volatile resin without any oleaginous quality. It is procured in the following manner. The natives make a transverse incision in the tree to the depth of some inches, and then cut sloping downwards from above the notch, till they leave a flat horizontal superficies; this they hollow out till it holds about a quart: they then put into the hollow a piece of lighted reed, and let it remain for about ten minutes, which acting as a stimulus, draws the fluid to that part, and, in the space of the night, the liquor fills the receptacle. The natives of Sumatra consider this oil a valuable domestic medicine, and it is much used by them in strains, swellings, and inflammations.

CANES

Are of several kinds, and are principally brought from the Straits of Malacca. The dragon's blood are distinguished as of two sorts, male and female: the first is perfectly round, the other not so, having a projection, or seam, on one side; the male canes are preferred, and should be chosen sound, taper, supple, and clouded, the more so the better, and of a dark brown or mahogany colour; the middle joint must be 36 inches long, and the top and bottom joints eight or ten inches more. Such as are light, and under 30 inches long, should be rejected.

Walking canes, called Jambee canes, are generally about four feet long, with joints, or knobs, about six to nine inches apart; these are of little value, and seldom imported.

The canes called Japan, or wanghees, are procured at China; they should be chosen pliable, tough, round, and taper, of a good colour, and well glazed, having the knots at regular distances; those which are light and worm-eaten, should be rejected.

6,000 dragon's blood canes, 3,000 walking canes, or 6,000 wanghees are allowed to a ton.

The duties on canes and rattans of the various descriptions are as follow:

		Permanent Duty.			War Duty.			Total.		
Bamboos	per 1000	£1	1	6	£0	7	2	£1	8	8
Rattans (not ground rattans)	ditto	1	1	6	0	7	2	1	8	8
Reed canes	ditto	0	16	9	0	5	7	1	2	4
Walking canes, or sticks, mounted, painted, inlaid, or otherwise ornamented or manufactured	per cwt.	51	5	0	17	1	8	68	6	8
Wanghees, jambees, ground rattans, dragon's blood, and other walking canes or sticks	per 1000	2	10	0	0	16	8	3	6	8

CLOVE BARK,

Or coelit-lawang, is the bark of a tree growing on Amboyna and the neighbouring islands. It is thin, of a greyish cast, and when upon the tree, is smooth, but when dried, it becomes rough and shrivelled; it is red within, and that taken from the bottom of the tree, has a strong clove smell and taste, but higher up it is not so strong, and is more astringent. It is dried in the sun, and must be kept in an airy place. It is much more esteemed than the Missoy bark, though its flavour and smell sooner decay. A very excellent and penetrating oil is extracted from this bark, almost as fine as oil of cloves, and possessing the same qualities. The Dutch Company reserved to themselves the extraction of coelit-lawang oil, and prohibited individuals from distilling it, under a penalty of 500 rix-dollars.

The appearance of this bark differs with the country which produces it. In the Moluccas it is browner than at Amboyna; the latter is also much thinner, harder, and of a more pleasant taste.

COPPER

Is produced in Persia, Sumatra, and Japan. From the former place it used to be imported into Europe, and is at present an article of trade from the Gulf of Persia to the British settlements in India.

The copper from Sumatra is produced on and in the hills near Labuonajee. The ore produces half its weight in pure metal, and is sold at the rate of 20 dollars the pecul; it is formed into small pointed cakes; and from the state it is in when purchased, requires much preparation and expence to render it fit for use, or perfectly malleable and ductile.

Japan copper is in small bars, about six inches long, flat on one side, and convex on the other, weighing four or five ounces each, and packed in cases, each containing a pecul. This copper contains

more gold, and is finer than any other that is met with in any part of the world. The Dutch used to carry on a considerable trade in it, importing it from Japan into Batavia, from whence they sent it to several parts of India, where it was usually disposed of to considerable advantage.

The duties on copper imported from the East Indies are as follow:

		Permanent Duty.			War Duty.			Total.		
Copper ore	per cwt.	£0	0	6	£0	0	2	£0	0	8
Ditto, old, fit only to be remanufactured	ditto	0	5	9	0	1	11	0	7	8
Unwrought copper, in bricks or pigs, rose copper, and all case copper	ditto	0	5	9	0	1	11	0	7	8
Ditto copper in plates and copper coin	ditto	0	9	6	0	3	2	0	12	8
Copper, part wrought, viz. bars, rods, or ingots, hammered or raised	ditto	0	19	3	0	6	5	1	5	8
Manufactures of copper, not otherwise enumerated and described, copper enamelled, or copper plates engraved	per cent.	51	5	0	17	1	8	68	6	8

COSSUMBA

Is a red dye much used among the Malays. Some kinds of it are manufactured amongst themselves, but the sort most esteemed, is procured from Chinchew in small round or oblong balls, about the size of a pea, without smell or taste, and which, when good, will throw out a beautiful red to the second or third water. That which is dull coloured, should be rejected.

DAMMER

Is a kind of turpentine, or resin, which flows spontaneously from a species of pine growing on Sumatra and the Malay Peninsula. It is exported in large quantities to Bengal and other parts of India; and is so plentiful, that the natives gather it in lumps from the ground where it has fallen. It is hard, dark coloured, and brittle, and should be chosen as clear from impurities as possible. There is another kind which differs from the former, in being soft and whitish, having the consistence and appearance of putty. It is much esteemed in India for covering the bottoms of vessels, for which use, to give it firmness and duration, it ought to be mixed with some of the hard kind, of which it corrects the brittleness.

EJOO,

Or gumatty, is a vegetable substance, so much resembling horse-hair, as scarcely to be distinguished from it. It envelopes the stem of a species of palm growing on Sumatra and most of the Eastern Islands. It is of all vegetable substances the least subject to decay, and is manufactured into cables, and the small cordage of most of the Malay vessels are made of it; it is equally elastic with coir, but much more serviceable, and floats on the surface of the water.

GOLD-DUST

Is found in various parts of the world, in South America, Africa, and many parts of the East Indies, more particularly in the Islands of Sumatra, Borneo, and Celebes.

The size of the grains of gold is extremely various; the greatest part of them are very small, some as large as the seed of an apple, and some much larger: but it is very rarely a piece of pure gold is found one ounce in weight. The appearance of the gold-dust, when gathered high up in the interior of

the country, is rougher and larger than when near the coast; the grains are then more dispersed, of a smaller size, more worn, and smooth.

The gold in Sumatra is found mostly in the central parts of the island, it being seldom observed to the southward of Limun, a branch of the Jambee river, nor to the northward of Annalaboo. Padang, on the western side of the island, is the principal mart for it. The metal brought down is of two sorts. The first is distinguished by the terms amas supayang, and amas sungei also, usually called rock-gold, consisting of pieces of rock, or quartz, more or less intermixed with veins of gold, generally of a fine quality, running through it in all directions, and forming beautiful masses, which, being admired by Europeans, are sometimes sold at the same price as if solid metal. The mines yielding this sort are commonly situated at the foot of a mountain, and the shafts are driven horizontally to the extent of from 8 to 20 fathoms. The other sort is, on the contrary, found in the state of smooth solid lumps, in shape like gravel, and of various sizes, sometimes weighing upwards of nine ounces; this sort is also termed amas lichin, or smooth gold. This form of gravel is the most common in which gold is discovered. Gold-dust, or amas urei, is collected either in the channels of brooks running over ground rich in the metal, in standing pools of water occasioned by heavy rains, or in a number of holes dug in a situation to which a small rapid stream can be directed.

A considerable part of the produce (perhaps one half) never comes into the hands of Europeans, but is conveyed to the eastern side of the island. It is stated that there have been annually received, on public and private account, 12,000 ounces at Padang alone; at Annalaboo 2,000; at Natal 800; and at Moco Moco 600; making in the whole 15,400 ounces per annum. When brought to the Company's settlements, it was formerly purchased at the rate of 18 Spanish dollars per tale, or about £3 5s. per ounce, but latterly it has risen to £3 18s. per ounce.

Before the gold is weighed for sale, in order to cleanse it from impurities and heterogeneous mixtures, whether natural or fraudulent (such as filings of copper or of iron), a skilful person is employed, who, by the sharpness of his eye, and long practice, is able to effect this to a surprising degree of nicety. The dust is spread out on a kind of wooden platter, and the base particles are touched out from the mass, and put aside one by one with an instrument, if such it may be termed, made of cotton cloth rolled up to a point. If the honesty of these gold-cleaners can be depended upon, their dexterity is almost infallible; and, as some check upon the former, it is usual to pour the contents of each parcel, when thus cleansed, into a vessel of aqua-fortis, which puts their accuracy to the test. The parcels, or bulses, in which the gold is packed up, are formed of the integument that covers the heart of the buffalo: this has the appearance of a bladder, but is both tougher and more pliable. In those parts of the country where the traffic in the article is considerable, it is generally employed as currency instead of coin. Every man carries small scales about him, and purchases are made with it so low as to the weight of a grain or two of paddy.

Borneo produces immense quantities of gold; it is procured at Sambass, Mompurva, Pontiana, Borneo Town, and Banjar Massin. It is stated, from very good authority, that 200 peculs of gold-dust are annually procured by the Chinese, Dutch, and English, chiefly by the Chinese, from the places visited by their junks.

At Banjar Massin gold-dust is divided into head, belly, and foot. The head is also called Molucca gold; it is sometimes in grains as large as bay-salt, of a very irregular shape, free from any artificial alloy, and comes up in fineness to about 22 carats. The price varies from 22 to 23 Spanish dollars per buncal of two Spanish dollars weight. The second sort, or belly, is in smaller grains, like sand or brass filings, the price varying from 21 to 22 Spanish dollars per buncal. The foot nearly resembles the belly to outward appearance, but is often found mixed with iron dust, or something much resembling it. The natives clear it by the help of a loadstone which attracts many of the particles; but it is never

quite clean, therefore too much circumspection cannot be used in purchasing it. The price of this sort varies from 18 to 20 Spanish dollars per bunca. At Banjar Massin they esteem the highest coloured gold the best, provided it be without alloy, which it always is when in dust; the lighter coloured or inferior gold is called amas moods, or young gold.

Gold-dust is sometimes adulterated with brass filings. To discover this fraud, pour a little aqua-fortis upon it, which will immediately receive from the base metal a blue tincture. There are several other modes by which this abuse may be discovered; if the gold-dust be spread thin upon a piece of paper, and moistened with any volatile alkaline spirit, as that of hartshorn, or sal ammoniac, the spirit will in a few minutes dissolve so much of the copper as to stain the paper blue; stale urine has a like effect in an inferior degree, and a solution of crude sal ammoniac applied in the same manner, produces a greenish stain.

In some of the places where gold-dust is procured, it is not permitted to make these trials; in that case it is usual to obtain the Rajah's stamp upon it, who takes care it is of good quality. At Malacca all gold-dust used formerly to be examined by an officer belonging to the Dutch East India Company, and then made up into small packets, each containing a catty, bound round with thread, and impressed with a seal bearing Malay characters. These packets, when sold, were never opened, but taken on the sellers' report; and no instance is known of any fraud having been practised on such occasions.

GUTTA GAMBIR

Is a juice extracted from the leaves of a plant of the same name, growing on Sumatra, inspissated by decoction, strained, suffered to cool and harden, and then cut into cakes of different sizes, or formed into balls. The chief places of manufacture are Siak, Malacca, and Rhio on Bintang. It is used by the Malays with the leaves of beetle, in the same manner as cutch in other parts of India; for this purpose the finest and whitest is selected; the red, being stronger tasted and rank, is exported to Batavia and China, for the purposes of tanning and dying. Gambir, when first tasted, impresses on the palate a strong sensation of bitterness and astringency, but it leaves a sweetish taste, which remains a long time. The price of this drug at Pulo Pinang varies from 4 to 8 Spanish dollars per pecul. The finest and whitest kind is formed into little round cakes or lozenges. It is sold by tale at 3½ dollars per laxa of 10,000, and one laxa weighs about 40 catties. This article is frequently adulterated with sago powder, but it may be detected by solution in water.

KEMO SHELLS

Are the shells of a very large species of cockle, common on the shores of many of the Eastern islands, and are sometimes upwards of 3 feet in diameter, and weighing from 2 to 4 cwt. per pair. They are occasionally brought home as curiosities, and are much esteemed. They should be chosen of the largest size, the internal part perfectly white, and free from cracks and decay.

LIGNUM ALOES,

Agallochum, or calambac, is the wood of a tree growing in some parts of the Malay Peninsula, Cochin China, Siam, &c. It is described as resembling an olive, and the wood, being so much esteemed among the Asiatics, is carefully watched. The trunk is of three colours, and distinguished by different names in commerce, viz.

1. Eagle Wood is that immediately under the bark, and is black, compact, and heavy, somewhat resembling ebony, and is called by the Portuguese, pao d'aquila, or eagle wood, and sinks in water.

II. Is a light veiny wood, of a yellowish brown colour, somewhat like rotten wood, and when burnt, affords a pleasant smell, and does not sink in water. This is the kind commonly known in Europe; it is harder, drier, more like dust in the mouth, and weaker in all its qualities than the real calambac, or heart of the tree; the nearer it approaches to that, the better.

III. Calambac is the heart, or centre part of the tree, and is the wood so much esteemed in all parts of India. It should be chosen of a shining yellow colour, and well veined externally, but more inclined to white within, and of a highly resinous quality; it should have an agreeable fragrant smell, and a bitter aromatic taste, and be of a sufficient softness to receive an impression from the teeth or nails. The true calambac is generally in flat bits; and its goodness is tried by putting a small piece into the fire; if it seems to melt like wax, and emit an agreeable fragrance while burning (which should continue till it is wholly consumed), the wood is considered of a good quality.

This wood is never brought to Europe, being of little value.

MISSOY BARK.

This bark is generally brought from the Aroo Islands and New Guinea; it is almost flat, of an obscure yellow colour, covered with a greyish outer bark, of a sweet smell and taste, mixed with the flavour of cinnamon. It is never imported into Europe.

RATTANS

Are produced in various parts of Sumatra, the Malay Peninsula, and several of the Eastern islands, and great quantities are annually carried to China, which is the principal market for them. For cane-work, they should be chosen long, of a bright pale yellow colour, well glazed, and of a small size, not brittle, or subject to break. They are purchased by the bundle, which ought to contain 100 rattans, neatly tied in the middle, and the ends bent together. In China they are sold by the pecul, which contains from 9 to 12 bundles of rattans: it is therefore necessary to examine into the average weight of the bundles, as they are frequently considerably reduced in size. Such as are black or dark coloured, that snap short, or the glazing flies off on being bent, should be rejected. They are occasionally imported from India, and when used as dunnage, are generally allowed to pass free of freight.

The following are the quantities imported and sold at the East India Company's sales in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive, with the sale amount.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.	
	No.	£	No.	£	No.	£
1804	38758	219	—	—	38758	219
1805	299072	2397	186568	1573	485640	3970
1806	6712	388	87127	903	93839	1291
1807	280445	2991	745686	5406	1026131	8397
1808	—	—	—	—	—	—

6000 rattans are allowed to a ton. For the duties on rattans, see Canes.

RATTANS, GROUND,

Should be chosen in long joints, at least 9 inches, tapered, heavy, and well-glazed. Those with the roots are most esteemed; but as such cannot be procured without paying an extra price, care should be taken to have them of sufficient length to make two, three, or four sticks, each 38 to 42 inches long. Such as are dark coloured, short jointed, badly glazed, or decayed, should be rejected.

SAGO

Is the produce of a species of palm, growing in the Moluccas and the neighbouring islands. The tree, when at maturity, is 30 or 40 feet high, and consists of nothing but a spongy and mealy substance, somewhat resembling the pith of an elder-tree, surrounded by a hard bark of about half an inch thick. When felled, the sago is loosened from the bark, and reduced to the appearance of saw-dust. The filaments are separated by washing; the meal is laid to dry, and afterwards made into cakes about 3 inches long, 2 broad, and half an inch thick; it is then baked till it becomes dry and hard, and forms the principal article of food in the Eastern islands. The finest part of the meal is mixed with water, and the paste rubbed into little round grains, like small shot, and dried. This is the sago as imported into England, for which market it should be chosen of a reddish hue, and readily dissolving in hot water into a fine jelly. It should, previously to being shipped, be carefully sifted and cleaned, and if possible, only the middling sized grains be brought; the remainder might be readily disposed of to the Chinese, who trade very largely in the article, importing it in their own junks from the Eastern islands.

The following are the quantities imported and sold at the East India sales, in the years 1803 to 1808 inclusive; together with the sale amount, and average price per cwt.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.		Aver. per Cwt.		
	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	£	s.	d.
1803	—	—	1331	2966	1331	2966	2	4	7
1804	3134	8404	1676	4273	4810	12677	2	12	8
1805	3474	7869	3520	6868	6994	14737	2	2	2
1806	342	793	1070	2022	1412	2815	2	0	0
1807	22	47	1	1	23	48	2	1	9
1808	859	1718	372	743	1231	2461	2	0	0

16 cwt. of sago are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is £2 2s. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty 14s. per cwt; but it is frequently allowed by order in council to be imported duty free.

TIN.

This metal is found in most parts of the Malay Peninsula, on Sumatra, and Banca; it is an article in which a considerable trade is carried on with China and various parts, and used to form part of the imports of the Dutch India Company into Holland. The best tin is said to come from Banca, the mines on which island are stated to yield 1500 tons per annum; it is generally made into slabs or ingots of different sizes, from 20 to 60 lbs. each; in some parts of the Malay Coast it is cast into the shape of birds, and is frequently in very small pieces. In purchasing tin, only the large slabs should be chosen, if it can be so managed; but if obliged to take the small, particular care is requisite both in receiving and delivering it from the ship, or the sailors will steal it to sell for spirits.

In 1789 the East India Company, with a view of benefiting the mines in Cornwall, came to a resolution of sending tin from England to China, and to the different settlements in India; since which period there have been sold, principally in China, 16,650 tons, the sale amount of which was £1,399,200, giving an annual average of 756 tons, and an average price of £84 per ton. The quantity of tin annually imported into Canton, is stated to be about 1800 tons.

The Dutch Company have had a treaty with the Chief, or Sultan, of the Island of Banca, by which the latter is bound to deliver to them the whole of the tin produced in his territories, at the price of 27 florins per 100 Dutch pounds, which are equal to about £47 10s. per ton avoirdupois; but this treaty being

compulsatory on the part of the Dutch, was evaded whenever it was in the power of the native Chief to obtain surreptitious sales at a higher price, which he was in the habit of doing with the English country ships, who generally anchored off Mintow, his principal town, on their way to China, where they purchased tin at about 18 Spanish dollars per pecul, which are equal to £67 10s. per ton. The Dutch Company obtained about 1000 tons annually at the treaty price of £47 10s. per ton, part of which they sent to Europe (on an average of seven years, 1785 to 1791, 165 tons per annum); the remainder they sold at China, and various parts of India.

The price of tin in London, in 1750, was nearly £74 10s. per ton, about which price it continued, with some fluctuations, until 1789, the date of the agreement between the East India Company and the proprietors of the mines in Cornwall. In consequence of that arrangement, the price of tin has risen to £100, £120, and £150, and even as high as £171. In March, 1812, a quantity of prize Asiatic tin produced at the Company's sales £187 per ton, while the price of British tin was £133 per ton.

The permanent duty upon tin imported into Great Britain is £3 9s. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty £1 3s. making in all £4 12s. per cwt.

WAX

Is a commodity of great importance in the Eastern islands, from whence it is exported in considerable quantities to China, and other parts, in large oblong cakes. It is divided into head, belly, and foot. The head is of a bright yellow colour, free from dirt and impurities; the belly is darker coloured and veiny; and the foot is of an ash-colour, soft and foul. Wax should be chosen somewhat brittle, of a pleasant yellow colour, an agreeable smell and taste, that does not adhere to the teeth when chewed, and burns entirely away. That which is dark-coloured and foul should be rejected; and care should be taken that the inside of the cakes are equal to the outside. It is occasionally imported in small quantities from Bengal; but the heavy freight prevents its being profitable, otherwise Bengal could supply the wants of Great Britain. The official value of bees wax imported into Great Britain in the years 1807, 8, and 9, was on an average £39,984 per annum.

20 cwt. of wax are allowed to a ton. The duties on the various kinds are as follow:

Bees wax, unmanufactured	per cwt	£2	2s.	permanent, and	£0 14s. war duty.
Ditto, white or manufactured	ditto	3	18	ditto	1 6 ditto.
Wax candles	ditto	8	8	ditto	2 16 ditto.

WOOD OIL.

This oil is produced on Sumatra, and is used for preserving timber from the white ants, and when boiled with dammer, for covering the bottoms of ships and boats. It is procured in the same manner as camphire oil, by making a transverse incision into the tree to the depth of some inches, and then cutting a slope down from the notch, till they leave a flat superficies. This they hollow out to a capacity to receive about a quart; they then put into the hollow a bit of lighted reed, and let it remain for about ten minutes, which acting as a stimulus, draws the fluid to that part. In the space of a night, the liquor fills the receptacle prepared for it, and the tree continues to yield a lesser quantity for three successive nights, when the fire must be again applied; but on a few repetitions it is exhausted.

PERA.

From the S. W. end of Prince of Wales's Island, Pulo Dinding bears S. S. E. distant about 60 miles. This island and the Sambelongs lie at the entrance of Pera River, which is in latitude about 3° 50' North. The ebb tide runs strong near the mouth of the river, where it narrows, especially after rain; it will admit of a vessel drawing 12 or 14 feet water, but the bar requires attention, being hard sand. There is but one dangerous shoal in the river. In other respects it is navigable with safety, having a continued muddy bottom up to the place where the Dutch had a factory, which they relinquished. The town of Pera, where the King resides, is about fifty miles from the sea. There is little trade here. The Dutch formerly contracted with the King for all the tin at 10 Spanish dollars a pecul; but much of it was smuggled to Pulo Pinang, by the rivers that empty themselves into the sea to the northward of Pera.

Cattle and poultry are not so cheap here as at Queda. Oysters are to be had in quantities near the river's mouth, and great plenty of excellent fish. Good water may be procured at a watering-place near the ruins of the Dutch fort, on the east side of Pulo Dinding.

SALANGORE.

The kingdom of Salangore extends from the river Bima in 3° 35' North, to Ginting River, to the eastward of Tanjong Tuan, in latitude 2° 10' North. There are several rivers which are navigable for vessels; the only one frequented by Europeans is Salangore river, in 3° 20' North, and longitude 101° 18' East. The town where the King resides, is situated a short distance up the river, to which small ships occasionally proceed. You are perfectly safe in this port while in the river, and it is the only one upon the Malay Coast, except Tringano, where you are free from apprehensions for your life and property. But lying in the roads, it will be necessary to be on the alert, and ready to repel any attack made by the straggling proas that are always about, and ready to take advantage of any inattention: you should not, therefore, suffer any proas to come near after dark. It never has been known that any accident happened in the river of Salangore by a ship being cut off, as the Rajah finds it his interest to establish a good name to the port. Coming into the river, steer for the look-out house, keeping it rather on the larboard bow, and the river's mouth fairly open. It is said that the Dutch have sunk large stones across the entrance of the river, which should be guarded against. The fishing stakes may be run between, observing to keep clear of those to which nets are attached, as you may do the fishermen an injury, which they will not easily forget. You anchor off the Shabundar's house, which is on the right hand side of the river as you go in.

Upon your arrival, your first visit is to the Shabundar, who will introduce you to the Rajah. The next day you bring your musters on shore; and having made your bargain to sell, you will stipulate likewise for your returns. Should there be any Buggess proas in the river, avoid making any private bargains with them, as the King does not allow any to trade with them or the Chinese; he monopolizes all this trade, and if he finds it out, which he is certain of doing by his informers, he will ever after give a preference in trade to any body else than you.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Spanish dollars are in general use, but imaginary dollars are dealt for here, which are computed by weight in the following manner:—8 tompongs of tin of 8 catties weight, are 1 dollar; 30 dollars, or 240 catties, are 1 bahar. The Malacca bahar of 300 catties is sometimes used for selling; it is therefore necessary in bargains to mention what bahar you agree for, and insist upon having your tin weighed by your own weights, as their dotchin is generally short of the weight you ought to receive.

The bahar here is 3 China peculs, or 400 lbs. avoirdupois.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—By the country ships from India, and by proas from Pulo Pinang, are brought

Coarse cutlery.	Gunpowder.	Lead.	Swivel guns.
Cotton.	Glass-ware.	Looking-glasses.	Steel.
China-ware.	Gold thread.	Opium.	Tobacco.
Copper goods.	Iron in bars.	Piece-goods.	Woollens.

The Buggess proas import many articles of Eastern produce, taking in return Spanish dollars and the above-mentioned goods.

EXPORTS.—The produce of the country, and what is brought from the neighbouring ports, is taken away by the country ships, or sent in their own proas to Pulo Pinang, and consists of

Beech de mer.	Cutch.	Elephants' teeth.	Rattans.
Beetle-nut.	Canes.	Gold-dust.	Sago.
Cloves.	Dragon's blood.	Nutmegs.	Tortoise-shell.
Camphire.	Dammer.	Pepper.	Tin.

In the choice of tin the preference here should be given to the smaller pieces, as the slabs are frequently adulterated with dross, stones, and iron shot. If you take gold in return for your goods, it should be examined by a touchadar, and have the King's chop on it, to prevent adulteration.

DUTIES.

Two dollars per bahar, that is about 2 in 30, are the customs here, and the presents are many, though not so valuable as at Acheen; and you will find it much to your interest to be on good terms with the Shabundar and the weigh-master.

MALACCA.

This city, which gives its name to the straits formed by the Malay Peninsula and the Island of Sumatra, is situated at the head of a small bay, in latitude 2° 12′ North, and longitude 102° 10′ East, and has a very neat and beautiful appearance from the sea. The city is large; many of the houses are of stone and well built; and several of the streets are spacious and handsome. The fort is on the south side of a small river, over which is a bridge of several arches. The church stands upon a hill, and being always kept white, is conspicuous at a great distance.

Large ships anchor with the church bearing E. 27° N. in 10 fathoms, about 1¼ mile from the town. Ships' boats may proceed into the river at about three-quarters flood. In going in, keep the fort well open to the starboard, till the river is open between the fort and the houses; then steer directly in for the river, that being the deepest channel; the landing-place is on the larboard side, as soon as you enter the river, about two stones' throw from the bridge.

Malacca was first visited by the Portuguese, under Sequeira, in 1508, and they experienced a friendly reception from the King; but great jealousy arose among the commercial people of the different nations frequenting the place, especially the Arabs, which they so effectually instilled into the Prince, as soon to destroy the good understanding between him and the Portuguese, whom he did not dare attack by open force, but used every species of treachery to destroy. Finding his plots detected, he ordered the massacre of all the Europeans who were in his power. Numbers were slain, but a few were kept as hostages, to prevent the revenge of the Admiral. Albuquerque, who was then the Portuguese Governor-

General, taking advantage of this quarrel, sailed from Goa in 1511, and appearing before the port of Malacca, demanded the release of his countrymen. This demand was at first refused; but after some hostilities, the King was so terrified as to send the surviving Portuguese, and offered to make peace with them upon their own terms. Those prescribed by Albuquerque were very high; he demanded leave to build a fort where he thought fit; reparation of all damages done to the Portuguese; and a sum of money equivalent to the expence of the expedition. The King absolutely refused to yield to them; whereupon hostilities recommenced on both sides, which ended in Albuquerque's attacking the city by sea and land with great fury. After an obstinate resistance, it was taken by storm, given to the pillage of the troops, and the plunder was very considerable. The Portuguese immediately erected a strong fort, and put a good garrison into it: in a very short time it became famous all over India and Europe, and from its situation, commanded the trade of the neighbouring countries.

The Kings of Acheen made repeated attempts to expel the Portuguese from Malacca, the principal of which were in 1537, in 1567, in 1615, and in 1628; and notwithstanding the resources of the Acheenese were prodigious at those periods, yet the Portuguese were successful in repelling their attacks.

In 1605 the Dutch attacked and destroyed a fleet of Portuguese vessels, consisting of 34 sail in the roads, and made an attempt upon the place, but were repulsed. In 1640 the Dutch, knowing the importance of the place, and the vast advantages accruing to the Portuguese from the possession of it, fitted out a large fleet from Batavia with a great body of land forces, and at the same time concluded an alliance with the King of Johore, who invested the place by land, while the Dutch blocked it up by sea. The Governor is accused of treachery, and to have been bribed into a surrender; but it is certain that he did not give the place up till after a gallant defence of six months against a very superior force.

The Dutch retained possession of it till the breaking out of the war with Great Britain, to whom it was surrendered on the 17th of August, 1795, since which period the establishment of Pulo Pinang, having superseded the necessity of maintaining it, as it was possessed of no natural advantages, either in point of product, trade, or harbour, the Company came to the resolution in 1805, of withdrawing the garrison and stores from Malacca and its dependencies; and, previous to the abandonment of the place, the fortifications and public works of all descriptions were completely demolished, so as to render it of the least possible value to the enemy, in case it should ever again come into his possession. Many of the inhabitants, with their families and effects, repaired to Prince of Wales's Island, and established themselves under the Company's protection.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Coins.—They have no particular coins of their own; some few Dutch schillings and stivers are to be seen; the rest are gold, as coupangs, ducats, &c.; but all contracts for goods, bought or sold, are made in Dutch dollars.

Accounts are kept in rix-dollars, schillings, stivers, and doits, which are thus divided,

4 doits	make	1 stiver
6 stivers	make	1 schilling
8 schillings	make	1 rix-dollar

All Indian coins are current here. The following are the rates at which they usually pass:

Bombay rupee	5 schillings	Japan coupang	80 schillings
Madras rupee	4 ditto	Ducatoon	13 ditto
Spanish dollar	10 ditto	English crown	10 ditto

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—All goods are weighed here by the dotchin, for which 1 per cent. is paid to the Captain of the Chinese, who is dotchin keeper.

GREAT WEIGHTS.		
16 tales	make	1 catty
100 catties	make	1 pecul
3 pecals	make	1 bahar

GOLD WEIGHTS.		
16 miams	make	1 buncal
20 buncals	make	1 catty

which is equal to troy, 29 oz. 16 dwts.

GRAIN MEASURE.—1 ganton is equal to 6 Dutch lbs.; 10 gantons 1 measure; 50 measures 1 last; 800 gantons 1 quoyane. 40 China peculs are 1 quoyane, and 1 pecul is 125 Malacca lbs.

LONG MEASURE.—The covid is two-thirds of a Dutch Ell, about 18½ English Inches.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The East India Company's ships, and the Country ships from India bound to China, used to call here for refreshments and to purchase goods; but the settlement at Pulo Pinang has effectually superseded the necessity of their continuing to do so, as they find, upon their arrival at the latter place, goods more certainly provided, and in larger quantities. Notwithstanding which, a number of articles are occasionally to be bought at lower prices than at Pulo Pinang. The China price current will be a guide in making purchases at both places; and it will not be worth the risk and trouble if the goods will not yield 15 or 20 per cent.

The gold-dust met with here is first examined by the officers of the Company, and then made up into small packets in Chinese paper, bound round with a thread, and impressed with Malay characters. Each packet contains a catty, and is worth from 460 to 500 dollars. The packets when sold are never opened, but are taken on the seller's report; and no instance is known of any fraud ever having been practised on such occasions.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Sheep and bullocks are scarce here; but there are buffaloes, hogs, poultry, and fish in plenty, and in general very cheap. Here are the finest yams of any produced in India, and a great variety of fruits, amongst the rest mangosteens and pine-apples in abundance; of the latter 20 or 30 may sometimes be purchased for a Spanish dollar. Water is brought off in bulk, for which you pay one dollar a butt; but it is sometimes brackish.

JOHORE.

The town of Johore is about 20 miles from the entrance of the river, of which the bluff land, called Johore Hill, forms the southern side. There are two entrances into the river. It was formerly a place of considerable importance. In 1511, on the Portuguese conquering Malacca, the Sultan and principal inhabitants fled, and founded the City of Johore. In 1608 it was taken by the Portuguese, and destroyed. In the following year the Malays built another town higher up the river, which they called Batusubar, and to which the Dutch contributed, out of the plunder they obtained from the Portuguese on the Peninsula.

In 1613 the town was taken by the King of Acheen, after a siege of 29 days, who plundered it of every thing moveable, and made slaves of the inhabitants. The Dutch had at this period a factory on the river, which was involved in the war with Acheen, and several of that nation were made prisoners.

The surrounding country produces pepper, gold, tin, canes, sago, and elephants' teeth; but it is seldom visited by Europeans, the Malays bringing their produce to Pulo Pinang in their own proas.

In 1703 Captain Hamilton visited the place, and was kindly received. The King made him a present of the Island of Sincapore, situated near the entrance of the river; but he declined taking possession of it, notwithstanding its convenient situation for trade, and the surrounding country being well supplied with excellent timber and trees fit for masts.

BINTANG.

This island is situated at the entrance of the Straits of Sincapore, and is in latitude about 1° 2′ North, and longitude 104° 30′ East. Rhio, the principal town, is about five miles to the northward of the S. W. extreme of the island, and was formerly a place of considerable trade. The Sultan was under the controul of the Dutch; but on the capture of Malacca by the English, their influence was done away. It is seldom visited by European vessels; but Chinese junks and Malay proas from the neighbouring countries carry on a considerable trade.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

The Spanish dollar is the principal coin. China cash pass current in small payments. All goods are bought and sold by the Chinese pecul and catty, and all bargains are made for Spanish dollars.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The Chinese junks import China-ware, iron pans, nankeen cloths, fire-works, &c. From Prince of Wales's Island are imported in their own proas, piece-goods of various kinds, opium, iron, steel, cutlery, looking-glasses, and other articles suitable to the Malay market.

The exports, which are the produce of the neighbouring ports and islands, are as follow:

Beech de mer ..... 8 to 12 dollars per pecul	Camphire .....10 to 12 dollars per catty
Beetle-nut..... 4 to 5 ditto	Gutta Gambir ..... 6 to 7 dollars per pecul
Birds' nests .. 1st sort....18 to 20 ditto per catty	Pepper..... 9 to 12 ditto
Ditto ..... 2d .....10 to 12 ditto	Rattans .....10 ditto per 100 bundles
Ditto ..... 3d ..... 4 to 6 ditto	Tin.....12 to 15 dollars per pecul

Large spars for masts are procured here of an excellent quality. Gold-dust is occasionally to be met with, the price varying according to its purity. There are no duties levied on imports or exports; but some presents are necessary to the Sultan, and the principal men about his person.

PAHANG.

This town is 12 miles up a river, the entrance of which is in latitude about 3° 45′ N. The river has an island at its mouth, which makes two channels into it; the northern one has 4¼ fathoms at high water, and the channel is about 150 yards broad; just within the bar is excellent anchorage in six fathoms. The river is a mile broad, but so full of shoals as to be only navigable for small vessels up to the town, the houses of which are built of timber and bamboos, surrounded with trees. It is under an independent Rajah, or King, who was once desirous of having the English settle here, but it was not considered worth attention.

COINS AND WEIGHTS.

The Spanish dollar is the current coin, and the Chinese pecul the weight in common use, and by which all goods are bought and sold.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—This was formerly a place of considerable trade. Vessels from various parts of India, Bantam, Batavia, Japan, and China used to visit here; at present the trade is principally carried on in their own proas, which import the following articles of European and Indian produce:

Cutlery.	Gold thread.	Looking-glasses.	Steel.
Gunpowder.	Iron.	Piece-goods.	Tobacco.
Glass-ware.	Lead.	Swivel-guns.	Woollens.

These they again carry to the Eastern islands, where they receive in return

Beech de mer.	Elephants' teeth.	Nutmegs.	Sago.
Cloves.	Mace.	Rattans.	Tortoise-shell.

EXPORTS.—The river abounds with gold-dust, which forms the principal article of trade; it is said that 8 cwt. have been exported in a season. Of pepper 300 tons are annually exported; but if there was a vent for it, it might be produced to the extent of 3000 tons. The prices of exports are as follow:

Beech de mer.....15 to 18 dollars per pecul.	Pepper .....12 to 14 Spanish dollars per pecul.
Beetle-nut..... 3 to 4 ditto.	Sago.....1½ to 2 ditto.
Elephants' teeth according to their size.	Tin .....15 to 18 ditto.

The gold is the best on the Peninsula, from 20 to 24 dollars per buncal, or the weight of 2 dollars.

The King being the principal merchant, you make your agreement to be exempt from all duties; but presents are necessary to him, and to the principal people about him.

PACKANGA RIVER.

The north point of this river is a bluff head land, in latitude 4° 50′ North. The town was formerly a place of some note, but fell to decay, being dependent on Rhio, the place where most of the eastern trade was carried, till it came into the hands of the Dutch; it has now returned under the subjection of its native Prince, and has regained, in a small degree, its commerce. This river is very conveniently situated for trade, being deep enough at its mouth to admit vessels of 100 tons burthen.

All goods are bought and sold for Spanish dollars, and are weighed by the Chinese dotchin.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The imports are similar to those enumerated at the neighbouring ports, but in smaller quantities.

The produce of the place is gold-dust and rattans, most of which is carried in their own proas to Rhio on Bintang, as it is seldom visited by any foreign vessels. Chinese junks occasionally come here.

TRINGANO

Is situated at the entrance of a river, in latitude 5° 21′ North, and longitude 103° 4′ East. This is a place of considerable trade; the Rajah resides in a strong fort, and is very friendly to Europeans. Ships are in no danger of surprise from the inhabitants of Tringano. The usual anchorage is with the flag-staff bearing S.W. by W. the Redang Islands N. by W. distance from the mouth of the river about two miles. Ships occasionally salute the fort with nine guns, which is considered a great compliment by the Rajah, and a like number is returned.

In November this is a lee-shore, and no ships should stay in the roads; December, January, and February are the blowing months, and a heavy surf rolls in from the China seas and the Gulf of Siam. Commanders are sometimes detained on board ten days on account of the large surf on the bar, and the ship riding with three anchors a-head.

The following account of the manners and customs is extracted from Elmore's Directory:

"On your arrival, your first visit must be to the King's datoo or merchant, who will introduce you to the King, and the male part of the Royal Family. It is the custom here (as in all other eastern ports) to give a present at your first audience, which you must proportion according to the rank of the people. The King's present should not be less than the value of 50 dollars, the Prince about 50, the Shabundar and agent about 50 each; these are the only presents absolutely necessary to be given at this place. It will be proper to visit the datoo after you have seen the Royal Family: a little attention to him may be of service in the course of your business, as he can give you every information relative to the markets. At every Malay port you will find some man who has an influence with the King; keep well with him: and if you find you are likely to sell a quantity of opium, promise a chest for himself when you have done all your business; he can assist you very much by praising your opium to all the merchants; and, as he attends the weighing part for the King, you have good weight, and no trouble."

The following remarks on the Malays were made by a gentleman long conversant with them and the whole trade to the eastward:—"Though the Malays are not possessed of many virtues, they admire them in Europeans, and invariably give the preference to the man who has dealt honourably with them. Endeavour by all means to learn the language, which, with proper application, may be done in a few months. Your linguist and touchadar are often great knaves, which renders it absolutely necessary for every man to be his own linguist. When you are dealing with them, guard yourself from passion; it is common for them, when you ask 600 dollars, to offer 150; they will tell you not to be angry. Never swear; though you mean no harm to them, their jealous disposition makes them think otherwise, and it may be attended with serious consequences, particularly when expressed in anger, which is too common a case. A man of this temper they will keep in constant agitation, in order to harass him, expecting by such means he will be glad to sell, in order to get away; but when they meet with a man who, if they offer one dollar, will put on a pleasant countenance, and tell them they have an undoubted right to offer what they please, they are gratified with his behaviour, and give him the name of a sensible man. If you take a touchadar, be cautious he plays you no tricks in cleaning the gold; you should therefore always carry a bottle of aqua-fortis, which must have a glass stopper; and likewise some magnets. If you take gold-dust, clear it from the sand as well as possible, then put it into a glass, and drop some aqua-fortis upon it, which will destroy and turn black every thing else but the gold. Let it dry, then use your magnet; it appears in the gold like black sand, and will all stick to the magnet; practice will soon make it familiar to you. Be careful of keeping aqua-fortis, as it is easily put into fermentation, and the vapour arising therefrom may be of the most fatal consequence, by either instant death, or the loss of your sight. Never keep any thing of value on shore with you, and always remember to send off your gold-dust as you receive it: you will then be safe; for 100 dollars are sufficient to induce a Malay to assassinate you, if he can with impunity. You should likewise have a set of gold touches and stone, to try the bar-gold, which is done with the different touches, by rubbing them on the stone, and observing which the gold comes the nearest to, and value it accordingly, always taking care to cut it lengthwise and through the middle. Practice on board with your touches, and the different sorts of gold, will soon make it familiar to you."

The tin procured here is brought from Palembang or Banca, in the Malay proas. The pepper, which is the produce of the country, is good; but they often mix it with the Dutch sweepings from Palembang, which must be looked into: they will always garble it if you mention it in your contract.

The merchants may want credit for about 20 days; more they will not expect, as you should always tell them you are bound to China, that they may use dispatch. If your time will admit of it, give it them; it insures you so much sold; and it often happens they have not the pepper brought in, or gold-dust; and if you refuse them credit, the merchants, among whom the King wants to take and distribute the opium go away, and you thereby lose the sale of 30 or 40 chests: besides, you may depend upon receiving the goods as they come in. You should make it a part of your agreement to have the King's seal put upon the gold, as he will then be in some degree answerable for its quality.

Some years since the King of Tringano was anxious to have an English factory established here, and sent a proposition to that effect to the Supreme Government. If it were thought worth while to settle in any part of this coast, this should be preferred, from the attention and respect paid by the Sultan, or King, to the English in general.

This place is conveniently situated for any of the Company's ships bound to China, which are early in the season, the commanders of which are provided with opium, cutlery, or Spanish dollars.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

All goods are bought and sold for Spanish dollars. The coins current are petties, cossangs, and mace:

400 petties	make	1 cossang
4 cossangs	make	1 mace, a small gold coin
16 maces	make	1 tale worth of gold-dust.

The common weight is the pecul, which is here nearly equal to 140 lbs. avoirdupois weight.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—Opium and piece-goods are the principal articles. Of the former from 100 to 200 chests are annually disposed of. The other imports are similar to those enumerated at the principal Malay ports.

EXPORTS.—The following articles are to be met with, the prices varying according to the demand:

Tin	16 Spanish dollars per pecul	Beetle-nut	4 Spanish dollars per pecul
Pepper	14 to 16 ditto	Rattans	20 ditto per 100 bundles

Gold at 19 Spanish dollars per tale weight of 1¼ Spanish dollar, or 380 Spanish dollars per catty.

DUTIES.

The established duties are 5 per cent. but you should always agree that the King should pay the duty, for you cannot trade publicly with any one else; at Tringano it is always customary. However, be careful to mention it in your agreement, or they will endeavour to take advantage, and make you pay them. The presents necessary are already enumerated.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Fowls may be procured here in great plenty at one Spanish dollar per dozen; and they have an excellent though small breed of cattle at 4 dollars each. Fish and fruits are in abundance.

REDANG ISLANDS.

These islands, which extend along the coast about 30 miles from 5° 30′ North, to 6° 4′ North latitude, belong to the Government of Tringano, and from some of which pepper, rattans, and black-wood are brought for the King's use. The inhabitants are apt to take advantage of any small vessels they can overcome. Having no convenient harbours, the islands are seldom visited by European ships.

PATANY

Is in latitude about 6° 50′ North; the town is about six miles from the road, and was formerly a place of very great trade. The English established a factory here about 1610, which took off annually about 10,000 dollars value of Surat and Coromandel cloths; but the trade falling off, the factory was withdrawn in 1623. The town is surrounded with wooden palisadoes, and has a strong fort, well mounted with cannon. The houses are built of timber and bamboos, and have a mean appearance. Considerable numbers of Chinese are settled here, who carry on a trade in their own junks with Siam, Cochin-China, China, and Batavia.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

The principal coin is the Spanish dollar, and all goods are weighed by the Chinese dotchin.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—The trade is in the hands of the Chinese, who import from Batavia the following articles:

Cutlery.	Iron.	Looking-glasses.	Piece-goods.
Gunpowder.	Lead.	Opium.	Steel.

From China are imported, for the consumption of the resident Chinese, and for the natives,

China-ware.	Ironmongery.	Silk-goods.	Tea.
Furniture.	Lackered ware.	Sugar & sugar candy.	Wearing apparel.

And from Siam, Cochin-China, Borneo, &c. a variety of eastern commodities.

EXPORTS.—These consist of the under-mentioned articles, the greater part of which are sent to China:

Agala-wood.	Blackwood.	Rattans.	Tin.
Beetle-nut.	Canes.	Sapan-wood.	Tortoise-shell.
Beech de mer.	Dragon's blood.	Skins of sorts.	Wax.

CALANTAN RIVER.

This river is in latitude 6° 16′ North, and under the Government of Tringano. The bar of the river is shoal, and there is a number of sandbanks inside, on which boats will ground. Ships sometimes touch here to procure pepper. The anchorage is with the river bearing south, about three miles distance. The coast from hence stretches westward into the Gulf of Siam; the principal place in which is

LIGORE,

About 12 leagues to the northward, between which is a low island called Papier. The anchorage is about two leagues from the river. About a league within the river's mouth the Dutch had formerly a factory. The town stands about two miles above the factory; it is built of bamboos covered with reeds. There are many temples with small steeples, which at a distance appear like ships' masts. This place is under the Siamese Government. There used to be a great trade carried on upon this part of the coast; but of late years, in consequence of the unsettled state of the country, it has been discontinued. The Malay proas carry on what little trade there is between it and Juthia, the capital of Siam.

CHAPTER XXIV.

Sumatra.

Acheen; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports—Mode of conducting the Trade—Exports—Port Charges, Presents, &c.—Provisions and Refreshments—Annalaboo—Soosoo—Sinkell; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Duties—Baroos—Imports and Exports—Provisions and Refreshments—Tappanooly; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Provisions and Refreshments—Natal; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Provisions and Refreshments—Priaman—Ticoo Islands—Padang; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Duties—Provisions and Refreshments—Ayer Rajah—Indrapour—Moco Moco—Ippoe—Cattown—Laye—Bencoolen; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—European Articles suitable to the Markets on the West Coast of Sumatra—Company's Imports and Exports—Commerce with the British Settlements in India—Company's Revenues, Disbursements, Debts, Assets, &c.—Duties, Port Charges, Pilotage, &c.—Provisions and Refreshments—Saloomah—Manna—Cawoor—Crooe—Bencoonat—Islands off the West Coast of Sumatra—Pulo Neas—Nassau Islands—Engano—Palembang; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Duties—Island of Banca—Tin Mines, &c.—Jambee—Indraghiri—Siac; Description—Imports and Exports—Arakan River—Batoobara—Pulo Varella—Pedir Coast—Telisomaway—Pedir—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Provisions and Refreshments.

THIS island is the most western of those which may be termed the Malayan Archipelago. The equator divides it obliquely into almost equal parts, its general direction being N. W. and S. E.; the one extremity, Acheen Head, being in latitude 5° 40′ North, and longitude 95° 15′ East, and the other in 5° 56′ South.

ACHEEN

Is the only kingdom on Sumatra that ever arrived to such a degree of political consequence in the eyes of Europeans, as to occasion its transactions becoming the subject of general history. Its situation occupies the N. W. extreme of the island; its extent inland reaches no farther than about fifty miles to the S. E. Along the northern and eastern coast its territory was considered in 1778, to reach near to Batoobara, including Pedir, Samerlangan, Passe, &c. On the western coast it formerly boasted a dominion as far down as Indrapour, and possessed complete jurisdiction at Ticoo. It now extends no farther than Baroos, and even there, or at the intermediate ports, although the Acheenese power is predominant, and its merchants enjoy the trade, the royal power seems to be little more than nominal.

The town of Acheen is situated near the N. W. extreme of the island, in latitude 5° 36′ North, and longitude 95° 26′ East, on the banks of a river, which falls into the sea by several branches, separating the low country into islands, and this low plain is partly inundated during the rainy season. The principal entrance of the river has a bar, which a boat can hardly pass at low water; but vessels from 20 to 30 tons burthen may enter the river at high water, and proceed about half way to the town, where they occasionally heave down, and repair. The common anchorage in the roads is in 8, 9, to 10 fathoms, with the entrance of the river bearing about S. E. distant two or three miles.

The town is situated on a plain in a wide valley, formed like an amphitheatre by lofty ranges of hills. It is said to be extremely populous, containing eight thousand houses, built of bamboos and rough timbers, standing distinct from each other, and mostly raised on piles some feet above the ground, in order to guard against the effects of inundation. The appearance of the place, and nature of the buildings, differ little from those of the generality of Malay bazars, excepting that its superior wealth has occasioned the erection of a greater number of public edifices, chiefly mosques, but without the smallest pretension to magnificence. The country above the town is highly cultivated, and abounds with small villages, and groups of three or four houses, with small white mosques interspersed. The King's palace is a very rude and uncouth piece of architecture, designed to resist the attacks of internal enemies, and surrounded for that purpose with a moat and strong walls, but without any regular plan, or view to the modern system of defence. Near the gate of the palace are several pieces of brass ordnance of an extraordinary size, of which some are Portuguese; but two in particular of English make attract curiosity. They were sent by King James I. to the reigning monarch of Acheen, and have still the founder's name and the date legible upon them. The diameter of the bore of one is 18 inches, of the other 22 or 24; their strength, however, does not appear to be in proportion to the calibre, nor do they seem in other respects to be of adequate dimensions. The main street in the town is raised a little, and covered with sand and gravel; but no where else are the streets raised, and even this is sometimes overflowed by the swelling of the river, from sudden and heavy rains on the hills behind the town, in which case they make use of canoes.

The King of Acheen, as is usual with the Princes in this part of the world, is the chief merchant of his capital, and endeavours to be, to the utmost of his power, the monopolizer of its trade; but this he cannot always effect, and the attempt has been the cause of frequent rebellions. His revenue arises chiefly from import and export duties, and is estimated at about £3000 a year: he has also an acknowledgment of rice from the land in general, and has, besides, the rents of royal domains, which are trifling.

Acheen was first visited by the English June 5, 1602. Sir James Lancaster, who commanded the fleet, was received with ceremony and respect. The Queen of England's letter was conveyed to Court with great pomp, and the General, after delivering his presents, declared the purport of his coming was to establish peace and amity between his Royal Mistress, and the great and mighty King of Acheen. Two of the Nobles, one of whom was the Chief Priest, were appointed to settle the terms of a commercial treaty with the General, which was accordingly drawn up and executed in an explicit and regular manner; in which the English had the following privileges confirmed to them:—Free entry and trade; custom free, whatever goods were brought in, or carried out; the liberty of making wills, and disposing of their estates, where, and to whom they thought fit; full security as to all bargains and payments, in both which respects the Acheenese should be tied to a punctual and strict observance of all the measures of justice and fair dealing; authority to inflict punishment on their own delinquents, without appeal to the civil magistrate of the country; assurance of justice to be done in all cases of injuries from the natives, upon complaint made; freedom from all arrests upon goods or prizes; and liberty of conscience, and the undisturbed exercise of their own religion. Having thus settled this important point, and obtained part of a cargo of pepper, Captain Lancaster proceeded to Bantam.

In 1615 Captain Best carried letters from King James to the King of Acheen, and formed a treaty, by which privileges of trade, and liberty to settle a factory at Tekoo, or Ticoo, on Sumatra, were granted, on paying of 7 per cent. on imports and exports; in return for which, the persons and property of the Company's servants were to be protected, on promises being made of large presents. The King of Acheen by this treaty requested "that ten mastiff dogs and ten bitches, and a great piece of cannon that a man might set upright in, might be sent out to him;" but in consequence of the oppressions that the trade suffered, it was nearly abandoned, and in 1621 both the English and Dutch factories were expelled, but some individuals continued to reside on the spot.

In 1675 the Dutch made war upon Acheen, because they would not permit them to erect a factory, and actually blocked up the port; but an English ship found means to run into the bay, and land a cargo of rice and other goods, though with the loss of the ship, which so obliged the Queen, that she declared all English ships free of the city, on paying about £80 sterling for a ship with three masts, as a present to the Queen, in lieu of all customs; that no English goods should be carried to the Custom-house, or surveyed in their own houses; and that all English merchants' houses were to be reckoned as sanctuaries to poor debtors or small offenders.

In 1684 the English Government sent an embassy to Acheen, to obtain liberty to erect a fortification there; which was peremptorily refused, being contrary to the established rules of the kingdom. To have a factory of timber and plank, was the utmost indulgence that could be allowed; and on that footing the return of the English, who had not traded there for many years, would be welcomed with great friendship. In 1688 the factory was re-established at Acheen; but those traders who had remained there, threw impediments in the way of all shipping not consigned to their management, and embezzled the cargoes of such as were. An asylum was also afforded beyond the reach of law, for all persons whose crimes or debts induced them to fly from the several European settlements. These considerations induced the Company to reclaim their ancient privileges, and a deputation was sent from Madras in 1695 for that purpose, with letters addressed to the Queen of Acheen, desiring permission to settle on the terms her predecessors had granted to them, which was readily complied with; and a factory on a limited scale was established accordingly; but in consequence of the unsettled state of the Company's affairs, it soon declined.

In 1702 the Government of Acheen attempted to impose certain duties on the merchandise imported by English traders, who had been indulged with an exemption from all port-charges, excepting the established complimentary presents upon their arrival, and receiving the chop or licence to trade. The innovation excited an alarm and determined opposition on the part of the masters of ships then at the place; and they proceeded to the very unwarrantable step of commencing hostilities, by firing upon the villages situated near the mouth of the river, and cutting off from the city all supplies of provisions by sea. The inhabitants feeling severely the effects of these violent measures, grew clamorous against the Government, which was soon obliged to restore the privileges for which they contended. From this period the kingdom of Acheen was in a constant state of anarchy and confusion; and the few traders who frequented the port, were in continual apprehension for the safety of themselves and property. In 1768 an arrangement was made with the Government relative to the duties payable by Europeans frequenting the port, and the presents to be made to the King and his principal officers.

The Company always considered that to have the full command of the Straits of Malacca, it was very desirable that they should occupy Acheen, as from this port the French were, during the two last wars, enabled to refit and supply their ships, and speedily to resume their depredations in the Bay of Bengal. The importance of this subject has been recognised at different times. In 1781 the Supreme Government was directed to endeavour to acquire a settlement there; which design was attempted in 1782, and again in 1784, without any other success than the admission of a commercial residency, which was withdrawn in 1785. Prince of Wales's Island had not then been acquired; and for a time it seems to have

been thought that, in obtaining that settlement, all had been done that was requisite for the national interests in those seas; but the Government of that island appears to have seen the value of a connexion with the King of Acheen, for in 1798 the Governor submitted to the Supreme Government propositions for a treaty with the King. The object of this treaty on the part of the King having been thought objectionable, the propositions were declined; but there is reason to believe that he is now disposed to give the Company a more important footing in his territories, and they seem to entertain a highly favourable opinion of the expediency of obtaining a footing at Acheen. The King has since that period expressed a desire to be supplied with two armed cruisers. The Bengal Government, however, declined giving their consent to the adoption of any measures which had a tendency to implicate them in the local policy of any native Government, which might involve them in distant petty hostilities, to the great injury of the commerce carried on between Bengal and the Coast of Sumatra.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

COINS.—Spanish dollars, pagodas, rupees, and other foreign coins pass current here. They have a small gold coin called a manna, which serves to pay servants and other small expences, but is of very base metal, and difficult to pass; also a small lead cash, of which you get from 800 to 1000 for a mace.

Accounts are kept in tales, mace, copangs, and cash.

GOLD WEIGHTS are the copang, mayam, mace, tale, buncal, and catty, and are thus divided:

4 copangs	make	1 mace.
5 mace		1 mayam.
16 mayams		1 tale.
5 tales		1 buncal.
20 buncals		1 catty.

The true standard of a buncal is 80 mace, though the merchants alter it at their pleasure, making it heavier or lighter: but in proportion as the buncal is altered, so must the catty be: from this cause the catty varies from 265 to 280 pagodas.

1 Acheen catty of gold-dust, weighing 280 pagodas, is worth at Madras from 300 to 310 pagodas.

GREAT WEIGHTS are the buncal, catty, and bahar, and are thus divided:

			oz. dwt. gr.	lbs	oz.	dr.
20 buncals	make	1 catty, which is, troy weight	30 17 12	avoirdupois 2	1	13
200 catties		1 bahar .....ditto.....	501 lbs. 5 oz. 10 dwts.	422	15	0

1¼ China catty is commonly reckoned a Malay catty, which brings 3 China peculs equal to 1 bahar.

All goods are weighed by the dotchin, which should be carefully examined and proved with English weights: the smaller the quantity of your goods which are weighed at a time to the natives under 100 catties, the more to your advantage.

MEASURES.—With the following they receive and deliver all kinds of grain:

2 chopas	make	1 quarter.
2 quarters		1 bamboo.
16 bamboos		1 nelly.
10 nellies		1 cuncha.
10 cunchas		1 coyang.

They have a particular measure with which they deliver salt, called a parah, which ought to contain 25 punies or bamboos, 80 of which make a quoyane, about two-thirds of a Madras garee.

Beetle-nut is measured by the parah, swept off with a board, one of which being counted, serves for a whole cargo. A loxa of beetle-nut is 10,000 nuts, and when good, should weigh 168 lbs.

IMPORTS.

A considerable trade is carried on, as well with private European merchants, as with the natives of the Coast of Coromandel; the latter employ from 8 to 10 vessels of 150 to 200 tons burthen, which arrive annually from Porto Novo and Coringa, bringing the following assortment of piece-goods adapted for the Acheen market.

Blue cloth, 9 calls, which costs	per corge	24 to	28 pagodas.....	100 corge.
Ditto, 7 and 8 calls.....		20 to	23 ditto.....	100 ditto.
Blue suckertoons, gold heads, 40 cubits by 2		35 to	50 ditto.....	20 ditto.
Blue ditto, fine, ditto		115 to	120 ditto.....	2 ditto.
White ditto, ditto.....		95 to	100 ditto.....	2 ditto.
Brown cloths, 8 and 9 calls.....		36 to	46 ditto.....	100 ditto.
White ditto, ditto.....		36 to	54 ditto.....	100 ditto.
Tappies, 4 in a piece, 6 and 8 cubits long.....		6 to	9 ditto.....	50 ditto.

A few fine long cloths, Pulicat handkerchiefs, taffaties, &c. generally are included in the assortment.

The other articles which are imported from the Coromandel Coast and Bengal, are

Cotton.	Gold thread.	Opium.	Salt.
Dried fish.	Jaffnapatam tobacco	Patna opium.	Sticklac.

Of European commodities imported, the following are the principal

Brass wire.	Glass ware.	Muskets.	Small arms.
Broad cloth.	Gold thread.	Looking glasses.	Steel, in faggots.
Cutlery.	Hardware.	Lead.	Swivel guns.
Gunpowder.	Iron, in flat bars.	Shot.	

The trade is in general troublesome, there being no great dealers resident here, so that the goods are sold by retail in a kind of shop under the houses. In this way all dealings are for ready money; but if any considerable quantity is sold together, the purchaser expects credit till he has disposed of it, which is sometimes three or four months, and it seldom happens a ship sets sail without leaving several sums behind unreceived. This manner of disposing of goods is seldom adopted by English commanders, as they trade with the King's Minister, or Shabundar.

The following mode of transacting the import business is extracted from Elmore's Directory:

"The custom at Acheen is, on your arrival, to go immediately on shore, taking all the samples of goods you have to sell, and enquire for the Shabundar, or Harbour Master. Shew your samples to him, and agree about the prices. It is not necessary to pay your respects to the King, until you have agreed to sell, and are sworn. You pay no duties on any sales made to the King. On all purchases of gruff goods, such as brimstone, beetle-nut, rattans, benjamin, horses, and camphire, the King's duties are 6 per cent.; the other petty duties for the Datoo, Shabundar, and Assay Master, amount to about four per cent. But whenever you purchase from, or sell to the King, be sure you agree with the Datoo (or King's Merchant) to be free from all duty, or he will impose it upon you for his own emolument.

" The presents at Acheen are large. If you do business, to the King should be given

" 1 long shawl, 1 piece, gold end, fine muslin, 1 carboy of rose water, 1 pair of gold slippers, 1 piece of fine cossaes, 1 barrel of gunpowder, and 1 handsome fusee, if you have arms to sell.

" To the Datoo (or King's Merchant) and Shabundar your presents must be in proportion; for the King, professing himself to be a soldier, does not affect to be troubled with merchandise, but leaves the traffic to these two men, with whom you will find it your interest to be on good terms, and fee them, after your first present, with trifles occasionally.

" These men are fond of parade and attention; it will be therefore necessary, whenever they pay you a visit on board, to salute them on their coming with three guns, and the same at their departure; indeed, this is expected by every man upon the Malay Coast, who holds any rank or appointment under the King, wherever you are.

" It will be absolutely necessary to have a touchadar (or assayer) to try your gold, if paid in that metal, and to have the King's chop or seal upon it, and beware of imposition.

" Never carry more goods on shore than you have orders for at one time; and as you sell them off, receive the returns, and give no credit upon any account; for if you give credit even to the Datoo, you will probably lose them.

" Houses are always ready for hire; but if your sales are made to the King, he furnishes you with a house *gratis*, till his payments are finished; after which time you must hire the same, or some other from the Datoo; for which you will pay one or two buncals of gold for the season, or while you stay there.

" I would advise in all cases to be particularly careful of your ship while in the roads: for the Acheenese are connected with the people and pirates on the Pedir Coast; and if they find you unguarded, will give them information, and you may thereby lose your ship.

" You run no risk on shore but from fire, though it may be proper to have, besides your servants, two or three Sepoys or Europeans with you; and particularly if you have any quantity of goods unsold, it will be also necessary to keep fire-arms in your house; for the shew of being always prepared to repel, may be the cause of preventing an attack."

EXPORTS.

The principal article of produce is gold; but the following are to be procured here:

Beetle-nut	12 loxas per buncal.	Pepper	1¼ chunea per buncal.
Ditto chinckney	3 bahars ditto.	Camphire, 1st sort	12 mayams per catty.
Benjamin, 1st sort	2½ buncals per bahar.	Ditto 2d ditto	6 ditto.
Ditto 2d ditto	1¼ ditto.	Ditto 3d ditto	3 ditto.
Ditto 3d ditto	½ ditto.	Sapan wood	6 mayams per bahar.
Patch leaf, clean	6 mayams per bahar.	Rattans	12 ditto.
Ditto, with sticks	2 ditto.	Brimstone	4 ditto.

Gold-dust, 24 to 26 dollars per buncal of 24 Spanish dollars weight; of this article great care must be taken that no dross or brass filings be intermixed, which is too often the case.

Precious stones are occasionally to be got reasonable; but as they are generally set in the country fashion, it is difficult to form a correct opinion of their value.

PORT-CHARGES, PRESENTS, &c.

Great impositions having been formerly practised here on the merchants, more particularly on the Europeans, the customs and duties were regulated by Mr. G. Harrop, who was Resident here in 1768, for

all European vessels frequenting the port, with the Sultan Abyden Mahomed Shah; but since the Europeans withdrew from Acheen, there are few who pay any regard to the regulations; though it is in some instances of great advantage to obtain leave to dispose of your goods to private merchants, rather than be under the necessity of selling to the King or his Datoo, and agree to pay the King only 5 per cent.; but then, as before stated, you will experience much difficulty in receiving payment for your goods.

Present to the King	2 per cent.
King's officers, on the sale of every cargo imported	7 buncals.
Import duties	5 per cent.
Export duties	6 per cent.
Chokey custom, for attendance at the time of chopping goods	2 mace per bale.
Chopping fees, to the man who chops or marks the goods	1 ditto.
Dotchin dues, to the weighing-man	¼ mace per bahar.
Qualla duties, on every boat load of goods imported	2 mace.

The contents of each bale of piece-goods, upon which the above customs are levied, are as follow:

Brown long cloth	2½ corge per bale.	Suckertoons	6 corge per bale.
Blue long cloth	7 ditto.	Blue mores	15 ditto.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

A bazar is held daily during the period any ships are in the Roads; and the following articles are to be procured:

Bullocks in plenty, good, weighing when cut, 2 to 3 cwt. each,	10 to 12 Spanish dollars each.
Ducks, large and good	2 to 2½ dollars per dozen.
Fowls, ditto	1½ ditto.
Goats	1½ to 2 ditto each.

The vegetables are red and white yams, calavances, pumpkins, and sweet potatoes.

All sorts of tropical fruits in abundance, particularly mangosteens, rambusteens, mangoes of a superior kind to most in India, pine-apples, oranges, limes, &c.

The water is good, and brought off in the country boats at a moderate expence.

ANNALABOO

Is in latitude 4° 8′ North; it is remarkable for a grove of cocoa-nut trees on a small promontory. The anchorage for large vessels is eight or ten miles from the mouth of the river, but for smaller ones not above three; the river is navigable for boats and proas, and they go up a considerable way into a plentiful country, abounding in cattle, rice, &c. In the N. E. monsoon the trade is carried on in small boats, but in the other monsoon these are laid up, and larger ones used in their stead.

The coins and weights are the same as at Acheen, this place being subject to it. The gold-dust procured is very fine, and it is said that upwards of 2000 ounces are annually collected.

SOOSOO

Is situated at the bottom of a bay, of which Cape Felix forms the western extremity; the town is in latitude 3° 41′ North, and longitude 95° 59 East. The anchorage is about 3 miles from the town, Cape Felix bearing W. by N. and the town N. E. by E. in 18 to 20 fathoms.

This place is likewise under the Acheen Government. On the hills between this place and Annalaboo, copper is procured; it is formed into pointed cakes, and sold for about 25 Spanish dollars per pecul: from the state it is purchased in, it requires much preparation to render it fit for use, or perfectly malleable and ductile. Rice is produced here in abundance; sometimes 30 bamboos to be had for a dollar. This place is much frequented by small ships that come here to procure pepper and other articles of trade; but it is prudent to be always guarded against the perfidy of the natives, who have been several times successful in assaulting and taking possession of the ships that came to trade with them. There is a small place, called Muckle, in latitude 3° 23 N. where the coasting traders occasionally stop.

SINKELL.

This river is the largest on the west coast of Sumatra. At the distance of thirty miles from the sea it is very broad, and deep enough for vessels of considerable burthen; but the bar is shallow and dangerous, having only 12 feet water at spring tides; it is navigated by proas and other small vessels. The town of Sinkell is forty miles up the river. The roads are in latitude 2° 10 North, and longitude 97° 38 East, at about two miles from the mouth of the river, bearing E. by N.

If a ship is likely to stay here any time, it would be advisable to run in between a small island called South Leaga, covered with trees, and the main, where you are safe from all winds that blow. This is the place where the Sinkellers transact all business, and perhaps you will not see a living soul for two days; however you must wait with patience, for the merchants come all the way from Sinkell, and probably may not hear of your arrival for two or three days, unless you send your boat up, which should be well manned and armed, with a linguist, or some person who can speak the language of the natives. About half-way up the river towards the town, you will see a single house belonging to the Shabundar; to this man you may declare your business, and he will send express to the merchants; you need not therefore proceed any further, but wait an answer, and conform to his directions. For a small present, which is necessary, and expected, he will give you information of what is most in demand, and what goods the merchants wish to dispose of. The merchants will speedily come on board, and upon seeing your musters, will soon settle the prices; you will then have boats on board daily with their exports. Be always prepared to repel an attack, and suffer only the principal merchants to come on board, and none with arms or offensive weapons.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Spanish dollars are the principal currency; but accounts are kept in tales, sooccoos and satallies, viz.

4 satallies	make	1 sooccoo
4 sooccoos		1 tale
1 tale		4 Spanish dollars.

Benjamin is brought here by the tompong or cake, which ought to weigh 20 catties, each catty 56 ounces avoirdupois, and for camphire 56 ounces troy weight.

The Chinese pecul is in common use in buying and selling most commodities.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—The European and Indian articles in demand here are the following:

Cutlery.	Gold thread.	Lead.	Steel.
China-ware.	Iron, in flat bars.	Looking glasses.	Swivel guns
Gunpowder.	Muskets.	Opium.	Salt.

and piece-goods from Bengal and Madras, of similar kinds to those enumerated at Acheen.

EXPORTS.—The principal exports are benjamin, camphire, gold-dust, and bees wax. You are generally paid for your goods in the two former articles, of the kinds denominated belly and foot; but for the head you frequently pay dollars, and it is seldom you can procure gold-dust without dollars, unless they are much in want of goods. In the examination of articles purchased, particular attention is necessary, as the natives frequently adulterate their commodities.

DUTIES.

No customs are levied for imports or exports, but presents are expected by the principal men to a considerable amount. According to your sales and purchases you must act.

BAROOS.

This town is situated about two leagues from the coast, on the banks of a river; and two leagues further inland are eight small villages, inhabited by Battas, who purchase the camphire and benjamin from the people of the mountains, extending from the southward of Sinkell to the back of Baroos. The anchorage is about three quarters of a mile to the southward of a small island called Pulo Carrang, in latitude 1° 57′ North, and longitude 98° 23 East. The Dutch had formerly a factory here, but it has been long since withdrawn. The place is famous for having given name to the native camphire produced here, to distinguish it from that which is imported from China.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS

Are similar to those at Sinkell. The proportion of buying camphire should be 66¼ lbs. Dutch, of head, 33¼ lbs. of belly, and 25 lbs. foot; making in the whole 125 Dutch pounds, which are equal to one pecul.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Bullocks, poultry, and fish are to be had good and reasonable, likewise very excellent water; when your boat goes on shore the first time, she must lie a short distance from the shore, until they send a person to conduct her into the river, otherwise you may lose her.

TAPPANOOLY.

The celebrated bay of Tappanooly stretches into the heart of the country, and its shores are every where inhabited by the Batta people, who barter their produce for the articles they stand in need of from abroad, but do not themselves make voyages by sea. Navigators assert that the natural advantages of this bay are scarcely surpassed by any other; that all the navies of the world might ride here in perfect security in all weathers; and that such is the complication of anchoring places within each other, that a large ship could be so hid in them as not to be found without a tedious search.

The English settlement of Tappanooly is situated on a small island in the bottom of the bay on the N. W. shore, called Ponchang Cacheel, in latitude 1° 40 North, and longitude about 98° 40 East, where there is a fort almost defenceless. The anchorage is with the flagstaff bearing S. by W. in seven fathoms. The village of Tappanooly is at the northern part of the bay, about four miles from Ponchang Cacheel. It is a common practice to moor ships by a hawser to a tree on shore. Timber for masts and yards are to be procured in the various creeks with great facility. Not being favourably situated with respect to the general track of outward and homeward bound shipping, and its distance from the principal seat of our India concerns, it has not been hitherto used for naval purposes; but our Government are aware of the danger that might arise from any other maritime power obtaining a footing in this place.

This settlement was established about 1752. In 1760 it was taken by a squadron of French ships, under the command of the Comte d'Estaing; but it was re-established in 1763, and in 1809 it was again taken by the French under Commodore Hamelin. By the terms of the surrender, private property was to be secured; but in a few days, after the most friendly assurances had been given to the acting resident, with whom the French officers were living, this engagement was violated under the ill-founded pretence that some gold had been secreted, and every thing belonging to the English gentlemen and ladies, as well as to the native settlers, was plundered or destroyed by fire, with circumstances of atrocity and brutality that would have disgraced the most uncivilized nations.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Spanish dollars are the current coin. Accounts are kept in dollars, sooceoos, and kepping, or copper, 400 of which go to the dollar. Fanams are met with, 24 of which are equal to a dollar.

Having no coins, all value is estimated among the natives by certain commodities. In trade they calculate by tomponge (cakes) of benjamin; in transactions among themselves, more commonly by buffaloes, sometimes by brass-wire, and sometimes beads are used as a medium. A galang, or ring of brass-wire, represents about the value of a dollar; but for small payments salt is the most in use. A measure called a salup, weighing about 2lbs. is equal to a fanam, about 2¼d.; a balli, another measure, goes for four kepping, or three-fifths of a penny.

English weights are used at the settlement; but the China pecul is in common use.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The natives of the sea-coast exchange their benjamin, camphire, and cassia, (the quantity of gold-dust is inconsiderable), for iron, steel, brass-wire, and salt, of which last article 100,000 bamboo measures are taken off in the bay. These are bartered again with the more inland inhabitants for the products and manufactures of the country.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Most of the articles mentioned in the neighbouring places are to be had here; but the demand being but small, no great quantity of supplies could be obtained without a short previous notice. Water is procured from the main land with convenience, and is very good.

NATAL.

This settlement is in latitude 32 North, and longitude 98° 57' East. The anchorage is in five fathoms about two miles off shore, with the flag-staff bearing E. by N. This is one of the worst roads on the West Coast of Sumatra, having numerous shoals in it, and often a very large sea running, and dirty weather, and when the wind blows hard from the westward, you cannot without great difficulty clear the shore. Notwithstanding which, it is a place of considerable trade, and inhabited by settlers from Acheen, Rio, and many other places, which make it populous and rich. The English settlement was first established in 1752; in the year 1760 the French destroyed it, but it was soon re-established, and the possession secured by the treaty of Paris in 1763. The town is governed by a Malay Datoo, or chief magistrate, who has considerable sway; and although the Company's influence is predominant here, their authority is by no means so firmly established as in the pepper districts to the southward, owing to the number of people, their wealth, and enterprising independent spirit. The factory is raised upon a breast-work thrown up by the natives, but is not strong, or capable of resistance to an European army.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Spanish dollars and rupees are current; besides these are single, double, and treble fanams, the latter called tali, coined at Madras; 24 fanams, or tali, being equal to a Spanish dollar. English and Chinese weights are in common use.

In this part of the island, where the traffic in gold is considerable, it is generally employed as currency instead of coin. Every man carries small scales about him, and purchases are made with it so low as a grain or two of paddy weight. Various seeds are used as gold weights, but more especially two, the one, the well-known scarlet pea with a black spot, 24 of which make a mace, and 16 mace a tale. The other is a scarlet, or rather coral, bean, much larger than the former, and without a black spot. It is the Candareen weight of the Chinese, of which 100 make a tale. The tale differs in the northern and southern parts of the island; here it is only 24 dwts. 9 grs. troy; but at Padang, Bencoolen, and elsewhere, it is 26 dwts. 12 grs. troy.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—From India are imported the following articles:

Beer.	Gunpowder.	Muskets.	Swivel guns.
Brass-wire.	Glass-ware.	Looking-glasses.	Steel.
Cutlery.	Gold thread.	Lead.	Salt.
Cloths.	Household furniture	Opium.	Wearing apparel.
China-ware.	Iron, in bars.	Patent shot.	Wines.

From Pula Nias, one of the principal islands lying off this part of Sumatra, are brought slaves to the amount annually to this settlement of 450, and to the northern ports 150, where they are said to be employed by the Acheenese in the gold-mines, exclusive of those which go to Padang for the supply of Batavia, where the females are highly valued, and taught music and various accomplishments. In catching these unfortunate victims of avarice, it is supposed that not fewer than 200 are killed, and if the aggregate be computed at 1000, it is a prodigious number to be supplied from the population of so small an island. Large quantities are also received from thence.

EXPORTS.—Gold-dust of a fine quality is procured here in considerable quantities. Some of the mines are said to lie within 10 miles of the factory; it is generally of the fineness of 22 to 23 carats. The price formerly was about 18 Spanish dollars per tale; but latterly it has risen to 21 dollars. The annual produce is stated to be from 800 to 1000 ounces; this, with camphire and wax, form the principal exports.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Beef, vegetables, fruit, and fish are procurable at moderate prices; likewise wood and water.

TICOO ISLANDS.

These islands are small and woody, about 1¼ mile distant from each other, and the innermost 1¼ mile from the main. The outermost is in latitude 23 South.

The early voyagers frequented these islands for pepper. The English and Dutch established factories here; but it appears they were expelled previous to 1621. At this period Beaulieu was here, and describes Ticoo as "being situated about half a league from the sea-shore, opposite to the island where the ships ride, where there are many houses built of reeds. The King is subject to that of Acheen. No

trade was permitted without his chop. Surat and Mausulipatam goods sold. Rials pass current, but the money of Acheen does not pass among them. They sell their pepper by bahars, each 150 lbs. avoirdupois, and the King of Acheen has 15 per cent on all that is sold; that is 7½ on the pepper, and 7½ on the dollars or goods imported to purchase it. Besides the above-mentioned impost, we paid for every 100 bahars 25 dollars to the King of Ticoo, and some inconsiderable allowance to 10 or 12 persons more. Above all, one must make the Governor one's friend, and keep a watchful eye over the Malays, who are apt to wet the pepper, or put sand and stones among it.

"Here are buffaloes, which may be purchased at four or five rials each, and plenty of rice, cattle, poultry, ducks, and good fruits, such as ananas, mangoes, pomegranates, oranges, lemons, &c."

PRIAMAN

Is about seven leagues N. W. of Padang; the flagstaff is in latitude 40' South, off which are several small islands; the northernmost is the smallest, and has a well of fresh water, where the Dutch vessels used to supply themselves. Priaman was formerly a Dutch settlement. The river is small; a pinnace cannot go in till high water; you land on the right hand side. There is no fort, but a square palisadoed, and a ditch about 12 feet wide and 8 deep; on the east bastion are nine small guns. There is a small cadjan-house, where the Commandant, who is a non-commissioned officer, resides. Along shore are a number of huts, the residence of the natives. This place was visited by Sir James Lancaster in 1601, where he obtained a quantity of pepper at a more reasonable rate than at Acheen. In 1685 a factory was established here; but in consequence of the opposition experienced from the Dutch, and the establishment formed at Bencoolen, it never became of much importance.

PADANG.

This settlement was the principal one belonging to the Dutch on the West Coast of Sumatra; it is situated up a river in latitude 58' South, and longitude 99° 58' East. The fort is within 40 yards of the river, about a mile from the sea. It is a square, with four bastions of stone, and the walls about nine feet high, surrounded, except to the river, with a wet ditch, four or five yards over, and about six feet deep. On the opposite side of the river are high mountains, which extend to the mouth of the river, from whence you may see every thing in the fort, and are not above 300 yards distance. It is shoal water for near two miles without the river's mouth, though there are two or three fathoms at high water, and about 10 feet on the bar. You go in round Padang Head; and when in the river, in a small bay, under the foot of the head, there is water enough for sloops and small vessels. You keep close to Padang Head in going in; the entrance is narrow. After passing the saluting battery, which is on the right hand side, you cross the river, and keep near the shore till you come to the stairs, or landing-place.

Padang is the greatest place for trade on this coast. The English were invited to form a settlement here in 1649, but were prevented by the Dutch taking possession of it, which they retained till 1781, when a detachment of troops, on board five East Indiamen, took possession of this and all the other Dutch factories on the coast; but they were given up at the peace. They were again taken in 1794, and remain in the possession of the English.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Accounts are kept in rix-dollars and stivers; 48 stivers making 1 rix-dollar. Spanish dollars and most of the Indian coins pass, nearly at the same rates as at Batavia. Both Dutch and Chinese weights are in common use.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—Great quantities of piece-goods are annually imported here; the other articles of European and Indian produce are similar to those enumerated at Natal.

EXPORTS.—Gold is the principal article; but at the Dutch settlements they will not permit you to try it; they, however, take uncommon pains to have it free from adulteration. About 3000 ounces are annually procured, which, with camphire, pepper, and WAX, form the exports. The prices are

Camphire, which is generally mixed	10 Spanish dollars per catty.
Gold, very good	18 to 22 dollars per tale.
Pepper	10 to 12 ditto ditto.
Wax	20 to 25 ditto per pecul.

Gum-lac, in considerable quantities, is to be met with on this part of the coast.

DUTIES.

Under the Dutch Government the import and export duties were 5 per cent.; but whether any alteration in that respect has taken place since Padang has been in our possession, is uncertain.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Cattle are in great plenty, from six to eight Spanish dollars each; ducks, one dozen for a dollar; fowls more; of fruits and vegetables they have abundance. The water here is very good, running from the rock, and is conveyed in bamboos in many places, on the starboard side, so that your boat may haul under them, and fill; the largest is about 200 yards above the first.

AYER RAJA.

This settlement is in latitude 1° 58′ South, and likewise belonged to the Dutch. The town, which is about two miles up a small river, is difficult to find, it being in the woods, were it not for the flagstaff, which may be seen a considerable distance; bring that to bear East, and anchor about two miles from the shore. It is a dangerous place to anchor at, as you cannot clear the land, should it blow hard, and you will ride very badly. It is not prudent to send your own boat into the river, as at low water the sea breaks very high upon the bar.

INDRAPOUR.

From Indrapour point, in latitude 2° 12′ South, the coast forms an extensive bay, at the bottom of which is a river, one of the largest in the southern part of this coast, and is capable of admitting sloops. An English factory was established here about 1684, but never became of any importance.

MOCO MOCO,

In latitude 2° 36′ South, and longitude 101° 12′ East, is situated at the bottom of a bay; the two points that form it are covered with tall trees. The fort, which is called Fort Ann, lies on the southern, and the settlement on the northern side of a small river, called Se Luggan, which name properly belongs to the place also, and that of Moco Moco to a small village higher up. The bazar consists of about 100 houses. At the northern end is the Sultan's, which has nothing particular to distinguish it except its being larger than other Malay houses. This settlement was first formed in 1717. The anchorage is abreast of the fort, in 10 fathoms, soft ground. Here you must not attempt going on shore in your own boat, but must wait till a boat comes from the shore to carry you in over the surf.

The exports from this place are pepper and gold-dust. The annual produce of the former is about 170 tons, and that of the latter 800 to 1000 ounces. It is sent to Bencoolen, from whence the articles required for their consumption and internal commerce, are imported.

All provisions and refreshments are easily procured here, except water, which is obtained with difficulty, in consequence of the heavy surf and shoal water which prevent the use of your own boats; but the natives will bring it off, charging about 1¼ Spanish dollar per butt.

Between Moco Moco and Bencoolen are the several places from whence the Company receive pepper, the principal of which are

Ippoe, in latitude	3° 10′ South, which produces annually from.....	30 to 35 tons of pepper.
Cattown, or Caytonen	2° 25′ South, ditto	20 to 25 ditto.
Laye	3° 40′ South, ditto	100 to 120 ditto.

And at each of which they have an European resident. The produce varies of course, as the seasons are more or less productive, but on an average does not exceed the above amount.

BENCOOLEN,

The principal English settlement on the West Coast of Sumatra, and to which all the others are subordinate, is in latitude 3° 48′ South, and longitude 102° 28′ East. Fort Marlborough and the town are built on Oojong Carrang, a point of land, having a level appearance, and moderately elevated.

The best place for anchoring in Bencoolen roads is the flagstaff E. N. E. Pulo Point S. E. by S. and Rat Island S. W. by S. Ships sometimes run into Pulo Bay to anchor; the best place is where Sandy Point bears north, about half a mile from the Company's godowns.

Should an European ship expect to be detained long here, it would be advisable to moor in Rat Island bason, it being safe in all weathers; and boats are able to make a trip each day with the land and sea breezes, and the goods are secure in the boats, which is not the case in the roads; for sometimes the north-westers give so short a warning, that boats, with half loading, are obliged to put off for Pulo Bay. In going ashore from the ship, keep the Company's hospital, which is to the southward, on the starboard bow, or right a-head, till you come near the shore, or south point of the rocks, then you will have the channel open, and the south breakers without you; then stand right in for the sugar-loaf, keeping nearest the breakers from the shore, till you have the fort on your beam; then steer in for the carrang, or landing place, the passage into which lies close to a bluff red point, with a grove of trees on it.

In 1684 the English, being expelled from Bantam, sent a deputation to Acheen, the success of which is already related. It happened that at this time several Rajahs, or Chiefs of the country of Priaman, and other places on the West Coast of Sumatra, were at Acheen also, to solicit aid of that Court against the Dutch, who had made war upon, and otherwise molested them. These immediately applied to the deputation, expressing a strong desire that the English should settle in their respective districts, offering ground for a fort, and the exclusive purchase of their pepper. They consented to embark for Madras, where an agreement was formed with them in the beginning of the year 1685, on the terms they had proposed. In consequence of this, an expedition was fitted out, with the design of establishing a settlement at Priaman; but a day or two before the ships sailed, an invitation to the like purport was received from the Chief of Bencoolen; and as it was known that a considerable proportion of the pepper that used to be exported from Bantam, had been collected from the neighbourhood of Bencoolen, it was judged advisable that Mr. Ord, who was the person entrusted with the management of this business, should proceed thither, particularly as at that season of the year it was the windward port. He arrived there on the 25th of June, 1685; and after taking possession of the country assigned to the

Company, he sailed for the purpose of establishing the other settlements. He stopped first at Indrapour, where he found that the Dutch, having obtained a knowledge of the original intention of the English fixing at Priaman, had sent a party to occupy the situation. In the meantime it was understood in Europe that this place was the chief of our establishments on the coast, and ships were accordingly consigned thither. The same was supposed at Madras, and troops and stores were sent to reinforce it, which were afterwards landed at Indrapour. A settlement was then formed at Manjuta, and another attempted at Batang-Kapas, in 1686; but here the Dutch, assisted by a party among the natives, assaulted and drove out our people. Every possible opposition, as it was natural to expect, was given by these, our rivals, to the success of our factories. They fixed themselves in the neighbourhood of them, and endeavoured to obstruct the country people from carrying pepper to them, or supplying them with provisions by sea or land. Our interests, however, in the end prevailed, and Bencoolen in particular, to which the other places were rendered subordinate, in 1686 began to acquire some degree of vigour and respectability. In 1689 encouragement was given to Chinese colonists to settle there, whose number has been continually increasing from that time. In 1691 the Dutch felt the loss of their influence at Sillebar, and other of the southern countries, where they attempted to exert authority in the name of the Sultan of Bantam, and the produce of these places was delivered to the English. This revolution proceeded from the works with which about this time our factory was strengthened. In 1695 a settlement was made at Triaman, and two years after at Cattown and Sablat. The first, in the year 1700, was removed to Bantal. Various applications were made by the natives in different parts of the island, for the establishment of factories, particularly from Ayerbongy, to the northward; Palembang on the eastern side, and from the people from the countries near Manna. A person was sent to survey these last as far as Croce in 1715. In consequence of the inconvenience attending the shipping of goods from Bencoolen river, which is often impracticable from the surfs, a warehouse was built, in 1701, at a place then called the Cove, which gave the first idea of removing the settlement to the point of land which forms the Bay of Bencoolen. The unhealthiness of the old situation was thought to render this an expedient step; and accordingly, about 1714, it was in a great measure relinquished, and the foundations of Fort Marlborough were laid on a spot two or three miles distant. Being a high plain, it was judged to possess considerable advantages; many of which, however, are counter-balanced by its want of the vicinity of a river, so necessary for the ready and plentiful supply of provisions. Some progress had been made in the erection of this fort, when an accident happened that had nearly destroyed the Company's views. The natives, incensed at the ill treatment received from the Europeans, who were then but little versed in the knowledge of their dispositions, or the art of managing them by conciliating methods, rose in a body in the year 1719, and forced the garrison, whose ignorant fears rendered them precipitate to seek refuge on board their ships. These people began now to feel alarms lest the Dutch, taking advantage of the absence of the English, should attempt an establishment, and they soon permitted some persons from the northern factories to resettle at the place; and supplies arriving from Madras, things returned to their former course, and the fort was completed. The Company's affairs on this coast remained in tranquillity for a number of years. The important settlement of Natal was established in 1752, and that of Tappanooly a short time afterwards, which involved the English in fresh disputes with the Dutch, who set up a claim to the country in which they are situated. In the year 1760 the French, under Count D'Estaing, destroyed all the English settlements on the Coast of Sumatra; but they were soon re-established, and our possession secured by the treaty of Paris in 1763. Fort Marlborough, which had been hitherto a peculiar subordinate of Fort St. George, was now formed into an independent Presidency, and was furnished with a charter for erecting a Mayor's Court, but which has never been enforced. In 1782 the magazine, in which were 400 barrels of powder, was fired by lightning, and blew up, but providentially few lives were lost.

The chief importance of this settlement to the Company being in a commercial point of view, and in this respect they had been considerable losers, from the small quantity of pepper supplied, and the increasing charges of the establishment in every branch, the expences exceeding the revenue upwards of £87,000 per annum; the Court of Directors, in 1801, came to the resolution of making very considerable reductions in the expenditure, and of withdrawing the subordinate Residencies in general. It was a matter of some doubt whether it would not be expedient to withdraw the settlements on the West Coast of Sumatra altogether; but some arguments of a political nature occurred, which prevented the adoption of that measure. This alteration rendered it necessary to provide for the covenanted servants, removed in consequence thereof, who were transferred to the Madras establishment; and the Act of 42 Geo. III. cap. 29, was passed, authorizing the Company to make the settlement subordinate to Bengal, and to transfer the supernumerary servants to Madras.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Accounts are kept in Spanish dollars, termed pisters. The coins current here are double and single fanams, rupees, and Spanish dollars:

2 single fanams 6 double fanams 2 rupees	make	1 double fanam 1 rupee 1 Spanish dollar.

The Spanish dollar is always valued at five shillings sterling in the accounts on the Coast of Sumatra.

WEIGHTS.—The Chinese pecul is in common use in the bazar; but most commodities are weighed with English weights. The bahar here is 560 lbs. avoirdupois.

MEASURES.—The coyang dry measure is 800 bamboos, each bamboo about an English gallon.

IMPORTS.

From England is imported by a ship, annually destined to St. Helena, Bencoolen, and China, the under-mentioned articles, but to a very limited amount; the demand, in consequence of the reduction which has taken place in the establishment, being small.

Anchors & grapnels.	Confectionary.	Iron.	Plate.
Ale.	Furniture.	Ironmongery.	Plated ware.
Books & pamphlets.	Gunpowder.	Looking-glasses.	Porter.
Boots and shoes.	Groceries.	Lead.	Small arms.
Brandy.	Gold & silver thread.	Lace, gold & silver.	Shot.
Brasiery.	Glass-ware.	Musical instruments	Steel.
Cheese.	Hams.	Medicines.	Stationery.
Cotton goods.	Hats.	Millinery.	Tin-ware.
Cards.	Haberdashery.	Nails.	Toys.
Cloths & cassimeres.	Hardware.	Oilman's stores.	Window-glass.
Copper.	Hosiery.	Painter's colours.	Watches.
Cutlery.	Jewellery.	Perfumery.	Wines.

European investments are generally sold by the invoice, from 20 to 60 per cent. advance, according to the demand, and paid for previous to the ship's departure, in Company's bills on Bengal, called specie bills, which are drawn at 30 days' sight. Dollars in general bear a premium from 6 to 10 per cent. in exchange for paper. The rate of exchange varies: in 1806 it was 210 Sicca rupees per 100 Spanish dollars.

English goods are frequently sold by auction here, the charge for which is 7 per cent.

COMMERCE WITH THE BRITISH SETTLEMENTS IN INDIA.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Sumatra from the British settlements in India, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Sumatra to the British settlements in India during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS FROM INDIA.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	2,06,117	1,41,000	3,47,117
1803	5,16,181	1,44,500	6,60,681
1804	3,28,725	95,000	4,23,725
1805	4,93,401	——	4,93,401
1806	3,42,878	——	3,42,878
Total.	18,87,302	3,80,500	22,67,802

EXPORTS TO INDIA.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	2,51,928	2,67,862	5,19,790
1803	2,07,860	1,47,903	3,55,763
1804	94,762	54,825	1,49,587
1805	6,04,256	1,21,819	7,26,075
1806	3,26,727	1,31,513	4,58,240
Total.	14,85,533	7,23,922	22,09,455

Articles of Import in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees	85,089
Grain		37,724
Opium		3,20,748
Canvas and gunnies		7,365
Sugar		3,172
Rum		1,620
Drugs		869
Sundries		19,116
Imports re-exported, viz.		
Wine and liquors		8,903
Broad cloth		200
Metals		3,025
Glass ware		1,008
Cutlery		2,691
Naval stores		866
Sundries		1,015
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	4,93,401

Articles of Export in 1805.

Pepper	Sicca Rupees	3,65,516
Spices		2,05,209
Sundries		33,531
Treasure		1,21,819
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	7,26,075

Merchandise imported into Sumatra from the British settlements, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees	18,87,302
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		14,85,533
Imports exceed the exports		4,01,769
Treasure exported from Sumatra to the British settlements	Sicca Rupees 7,23,922	
Ditto imported to ditto	3,80,500	
		3,43,422
Balance *against* Sumatra	Sicca Rupees	7,45,191

COMPANY'S IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The following is an account of the invoice amount of the goods, merchandise, and bullion, imported into Bencoolen by the East India Company from England, in the years 1792–3 to 1808–9 inclusive; likewise the prime cost of goods exported from Bencoolen to England, exclusive of commercial charges, during the same period:

Years.	IMPORTS FROM ENGLAND.			EXPORTS TO ENGLAND.
	Goods & Stores.	Bullion.	Total.	
	£	£	£	Current Rupees.
1792–3	1,401	10,998	12,399	2,91,175
1793–4	2,522	10,298	12,820	1,29,815
1794–5	3,028	——	3,028	2,73,172
1795–6	10,884	——	10,884	1,38,310
1796–7	8,075	20,784	28,859	1,87,075
1797–8	2,575	17,581	20,156	2,10,742
1798–9	——	17,390	17,390	3,73,925
1799–0	540	——	540	3,13,825
1800–1	18,143	19,937	38,080	——
1801–2	6,361	——	6,361	2,10,922
1802–3	15,436	——	15,436	1,62,192
1803–4	20,883	——	20,883	3,90,145
1804–5	25,120	——	25,120	86,090
1805–6	20,303	——	20,303	6,43,122
1806–7	15,963	——	15,963	3,16,039
1807–8	6,217	——	6,217	5,04,995
1808–9	10,969	——	10,969	——
Total	168,420	96,988	265,408	42,31,544

From the foregoing statement it appears that in the 17 years, 1792–3 to 1808–9 inclusive,

the value of merchandise imported into Bencoolen by the Company was	£168,420
That during the same period the prime cost of goods exported to England was 42,31,544 current rupees, which, at 2s. each, are	423,154
Exports exceed the imports	254,734
The treasure imported during the same period, amounted to	96,988
Forming a balance in favour of Bencoolen in 17 years	£351,722

Exclusive of the imports from England, which consisted principally of stores for the Company's servants. Considerable supplies have been sent from Bengal, in many cases to an amount exceeding the demand for the direct expences of the Residency, which must have been applied to the purchase of pepper.

EXPORTS.

The only object of the East India Company's trade to Sumatra is pepper, and this it reserves to itself; but their servants and other merchants are free to deal in every other commodity. The quantity produced does not exceed 1200 tons annually; the principal part of which is sent to England, and the remainder to China. On an average of five years to 1800, it only amounted to 1004 tons, the prime cost of which did not exceed 100,000 dollars annually.

Large plantations of nutmegs and cloves have lately been planted by the Company and individuals, which are stated to be in a thriving state, and likely to become a considerable article of commerce.

REVENUES, DISBURSEMENTS, ASSETS, &c.

The following is a statement of the East India Company's revenues, disbursements, assets, and debts, at Bencoolen and its dependencies, from the year 1793–4 to 1809–10 inclusive:

Years.	Revenues.	Civil Charges.	Military Charges.	Buildings.	Total Charges.	Net Charges.	Assets.	Debts.	Interest on Debts.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
1793–4	19,641	1,05,304	1,33,190	46,223	2,84,717	2,65,086	8,26,392	2,14,148	8,032
1794–5	20,447	91,205	1,62,498	25,355	2,79,058	2,58,611	6,48,240	1,78,392	8,032
1795–6	20,162	1,13,861	1,94,430	76,950	3,82,241	3,62,079	7,02,608	2,15,668	8,032
1796–7	18,583	1,26,114	1,83,179	1,05,969	4,15,262	3,96,679	6,72,220	2,03,656	8,032
1797–8	23,376	1,81,241	2,20,217	57,521	4,58,979	4,35,603	6,15,564	2,42,444	8,032
1798–9	24,510	1,60,411	2,37,910	86,011	4,84,332	4,59,822	6,90,192	2,46,816	8,032
1799–0	35,933	1,17,506	1,79,623	33,929	3,31,058	2,95,125	7,57,624	2,31,868	6,668
1800–1	45,236	2,08,260	1,68,750	31,963	4,08,973	3,63,737	7,57,624	2,38,496	6,668
1801–2	50,030	1,71,500	1,67,000	1,000	3,39,500	2,89,470	9,95,604	2,58,144	4,648
1802–3	55,940	2,44,200	1,45,249	99,018	4,88,527	4,32,587	11,40,836	4,70,176	4,796
1803–4	49,604	1,94,617	1,59,138	1,43,372	4,97,127	4,47,523	11,40,836	4,52,204	4,648
1804–5	63,676	——	——	——	8,54,009	7,90,333	16,85,376	2,94,048	7,392
1805–6	71,424	1,90,670	1,63,470	78,486	4,32,626	3,61,202	16,03,772	3,59,552	4,648
1806–7	52,236	1,28,553	59,341	14,870	2,02,764	1,50,528	15,61,548	2,32,220	8,684
1807–8	56,280	94,535	32,572	29,940	1,77,047	1,20,767	13,65,908	1,93,372	4,648
1808–9	52,742	1,55,547	1,19,142	34,982	3,09,671	2,56,929	12,48,568	1,43,112	4,648
1809–10	51,565	1,56,818	1,09,216	17,911	2,83,945	2,32,380	10,05,740	1,15,484	4,648

From the above statement it appears that the charges of Bencoolen and its subordinates, including the interest of the debt, have exceeded the revenues, during the 17 years, 60,28,749 Spanish dollars, which, at 5*s.* each, are £1,507,187 5*s.* being on an average £88,658 per annum.

It also appears that the debts owing by the East India Company at this settlement, in 1809, were, Spanish dollars, 1,15,484, which, at 5*s.* each, are..... £28,871

The net amount of assets, as adjusted by the Committee of the House of Commons 185,738

The Company's assets, or quick stock, at Bencoolen exceed their debts..... £156,867

The amount of assets in 1809–10 consisted of cash and bills, 1,05,000 dollars; stores, 2,03,304; debts, including advances for investment, 5,72,436, and export goods 1,25,000 dollars.

Exclusive of the above assets, the Company are possessed of property to a considerable amount at this settlement, which, from not being considered as active or immediately available, is not inserted in what is termed their quick stock accounts. This consists of plate, household furniture, guns on the ramparts, arms, and some descriptions of military stores; which, with the doubtful debts of the Company, are carried into an account termed dead stock. In many respects the articles so described are nevertheless to be considered as real property. By the Company's accounts, drawn up annually, and presented to Parliament, it appears that up to March, 1810, the sum expended on buildings and fortifications for the acquisition and maintenance of their possessions, and the estimated value of other articles of dead stock, at this settlement and its subordinates, was as follows:

Buildings and fortifications £243,640

Plate, furniture, plantations, farms, vessels, stores, &c..... 74,544

£318,184

DUTIES, PORT-CHARGES, &c.

A manifest is required at the Custom-house before any goods are permitted to be landed, specifying the marks, numbers, and prime cost of the various articles. This must be attested before a magistrate, and 6 per cent. is charged on the amount, as Company's duties (exclusive of packages) and 5 per cent. on the amount of duty, as the collector's commission.

The master attendant is the only person who keeps an establishment of boats, several of which are from 10 to 30 tons each. The rate of freight he is authorized by Government to charge is, to Rat Island, inner or outer road, 1¼ Spanish dollar per ton per day; to Pulo Bay double freight. This rate may be considered high, but it must be recollected that boats can only make one trip per day, the ships lying at so great a distance from the shore. The following are the usual charges for landing and shipping goods:

Grain, 13 bags to a ton ..... 1 dollar per ton.	Iron and steel ..... 1 dollar per ton.
Salt and saltpetre ..... 1 ditto.	Copper and lead ..... 1 ditto.
Pepper, 16 cwt. to the ton ..... 1 ditto.	Tin ..... 1 ditto.
Water ..... 1 ditto per butt.	Opium ..... 1 dollar per chest.

Whatever boat may be partly laden with the above articles, and filled up with others, must be paid for in proportion, as the freight of the boat may be, deducting for the weight or freight of the foregoing articles so loaded in her.

Ships sometimes use their own boats, which saves much expence, but is attended with inconvenience.

The following are the usual charges for pilotage, ballasting, and watering ships here:

PILOTAGE.

A ship, in or out of the inner road	5 Spanish dollars
In or out of Rat Island	10 ditto
In or out of Pulo Bay	10 ditto

BALLASTING.

For every 100 tons in Pulo Bay	75 Spanish dollars
For ..... ditto ..... Rat Island	125 ditto
For ..... ditto ..... small roads	75 ditto

WATERING.

Landing empty butts, each	½ Spanish dollar
Wharfage, filling, and cooley hire	1 ditto
Shipping off, per butt	1 ditto

The port-fees are for every 100 tons, 10 Spanish dollars; for foreign ships double that sum.

In all cases where boats shall arrive alongside vessels by nine o'clock in the morning, they must be dispatched before three o'clock, in failure of which, if it should so happen that the boat is prevented going off next morning, the master attendant shall be entitled to the demurrage of one day, estimated according to the boat's rated burthen and hire. In like manner, should boats be detained alongside of vessels, whether from the incapacity of discharging them, want of orders, or hesitation of any kind, demurrage shall be due.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Provisions and vegetables of all kinds are very dear. Bullocks and buffaloes 25 dollars each. Sweet potatoes and yams 4 to 5 dollars a pecul. Poultry scarce and dear. A charge of 2 dollars is made for sending each bullock on board. The mangosten and other tropical fruits are met with here, but not in abundance. The water is very indifferent, and considered unwholesome. There is a tavern, but it is not much frequented, the expences being very heavy, amounting to near 8 Spanish dollars per day.

Between Bencoolen and the southern extreme of Sumatra, are the under-mentioned places, from whence the Company draw supplies of pepper, and where they used to have residents:

Saloomah, in latitude about	4° 12′	South, the average annual produce from	200 to 250 tons.
Manna, ditto	4° 25′	ditto	250 to 300 ditto.
Cawoor, ditto	4° 54′	ditto	80 to 90 ditto.
Croce, ditto	5° 13′	ditto	170 to 180 ditto.

This produce varies of course as the seasons are more or less productive, but on an average of five years, ending 1800, it did not exceed the above quantity. Croce is also celebrated for bird's nests, which are gathered in considerable quantities from some caves about four miles up the river.

There are a number of islands lying off the West Coast of Sumatra, running in the same direction, at about the distance of 20 leagues, the principal of which are Pulo Neas, Si Porah, Poggy or Nassau Islands, and Engano; they are little frequented, and of course but imperfectly known.

PULO NEAS

Is the largest, most productive, and important of the whole range, and extends from latitude 1° 18′ North, nearly in a S. E. direction to 2° North; its inhabitants are very numerous, and of a race very different from the Malays in general. The island is divided into a number of small districts under Rajahs, who are independent of, and at perpetual variance with each other; the ultimate object of their wars being to make prisoners, whom they sell for slaves, as well as all others not immediately connected with them, whom they can seize by stratagem. These violences are doubtless encouraged by the resort of native traders from Padang, Natal, and Acheen, to procure cargoes of slaves, who are also accused of augmenting the profits of their voyage, by occasionally surprising and carrying off whole families.

The following is an estimate of the number of slaves annually torn from their friends and families, and carried to settlements, some of whom have long been in the possession of the English.

To Natal	450
To the northern ports	150
To Padang, for the supply of Batavia	200
Killed in various encounters on the island	200

making a total of 1000, which is a great number to be supplied from the population of so small an island.

Considerable quantities of rice and paddy are annually taken hence by the traders, in exchange for iron, steel, beads, tobacco, and coarse piece-goods. Numbers of wild hogs are reared here, and some parts of the main, especially Baroos, are supplied from hence with yams, beans, and poultry. Some of the Rajahs are said to have amassed from 10 to 20,000 dollars each, which are kept in ingots of gold and silver; much of the latter consisting of small Dutch money (not of the purest coin) melted down, and of these they make an ostentatious display at weddings and other festivals.

NASSAU, OR POGGY ISLANDS.

These two islands are called the North and South Poggy, or Nassau Islands; the north point of the former is in latitude 2° 32' South. They are separated from each other by a narrow strait, called Se-cockup; the straits are about two miles long, and a quarter of a mile broad, and an excellent place for ships of any size to anchor, being perfectly secure from every wind. They are both inhabited, divided into small tribes, each occupying a small river, and living in one village. On the southern island are five, and on the northern seven villages, of which Kakap is reckoned the chief, although Labulabu is supposed to contain the greater number of people. Their houses are built of bamboos, and raised on posts, the under part of which is occupied by hogs and poultry. Sago constitutes the principal food of the inhabitants, who do not cultivate rice. Large red deer, hogs, and fowls are common, but they have neither buffaloes nor goats. They are strangers to the use of coin of any kind, and have little knowledge of metals. The iron bill or chopping-knife, called parang, is in much esteem amongst them; it serves as a standard for the value of other commodities, such as articles of provision. A metal coat button is of equal value in their esteem to a piece of gold or silver coin. On the northern island, near the entrance of the straits, are a few houses inhabited by some Malays from Fort Marlborough; they reside here for the purpose of building large boats, the timber and planks for which are found close at hand; the mountains being covered with various kinds of timber, amongst which are poon trees, of sufficient dimensions for lower masts to a first-rate man of war, and several sorts suitable for building ships of large burden.

ENGANO.

The southernmost of the large islands fronting the West Coast of Sumatra, is large, triangular, and the inland country high; its southern extreme is in latitude 5° 27' South, and longitude about 102° 17' East. It is very imperfectly known; all attempts to open a friendly communication with the natives having hitherto proved fruitless. To the eastward of it, near its southernmost point, are four small islands, which form an exceeding fine bay, where you have clear ground, good anchorage, and shelter from any wind for ships of any burthen. One of these islands is sandy, and there vessels may go in, and repair or careen with great facility, having four fathoms clear ground close to the shore; there is also good running water, plenty of fine wood for building or repairing ships, and abundance of excellent fish, yams, and cocoa-nuts. The island is said to be well inhabited; the houses stand singly in the plantations, are circular, about eight feet in diameter, raised about six feet from the ground on slender iron-wood sticks, floored with planks, and the roof, which is thatched with long grass, rises from the floor in a conical shape. They have a number of canoes, which are very neat, and in general contain six or seven men.

There are several bays on the South Coast of Sumatra, but they are seldom visited by Europeans, as they produce no articles of trade, and the natives, being very treacherous, are not to be trusted.

PALEMBANG.

This kingdom is of considerable importance, and its river one of the largest in the island, disemboguing itself by various branches into the sea. Its principal entrance is in latitude about 2° 52' South, and longitude 104° 50' East, opposite to the city of Palembang and the Dutch Company's factory, which is 14 leagues from its entrance; it is upwards of a mile in breadth, and is conveniently navigated by vessels drawing 14 feet water. Those of a larger description have been carried thither for military purposes (as in 1660, when the place was attacked and destroyed by the Dutch); but the operation is attended with considerable difficulty and danger, on account of the numerous shoals in the river, the lower parts of the country being flat and marshy, and overflowed during the rainy season.

The city of Palembang is about sixty miles from the sea; it extends about eight miles along both banks of the river, and is mostly confined to them, and to the creeks which open into the river. The buildings, with the exception of the King's palace and mosque, being all of wood and bamboos, standing on posts, and mostly covered with palm leaves, the appearance of the place has nothing to recommend it; there are also a great number of floating habitations, mostly shops, upon bamboo rafts, moored to piles, and which can be removed up or down the river at pleasure. Indeed, as the nature of the surrounding country, being overflowed in high tides, scarcely admits of roads, almost all communication is carried on by means of boats, which accordingly are seen moving by hundreds in every direction without intermission. The palace is surrounded with a high wall, and appears large, lofty, and much ornamented on the outside. Immediately adjoining this wall, on the lower side, is a strong square roofed battery, commanding the river, and below it another, on both of which many heavy cannon are mounted, and fired upon particular occasions. In the interval between the two batteries is a plain, at the extremity of which appears the hall where the Sultan gives audience in public; this is an ordinary building, and serves occasionally for a warehouse, but it is ornamented with weapons arranged along the walls. The royal mosque stands behind the palace, and from the style of architecture, seems to have been constructed by an European; it is an oblong building, with glazed windows, pilasters, and a cupola, and has a handsome appearance.

The policy of this Government having always encouraged foreign settlers, the city and lower parts of the river are in a great measure peopled with natives of China, Cochin China, Siam, Cambodia, Patany, Java, Celebes, Borneo, and other eastern places.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Coins.—The currency of the country, and the only money allowed to be received at the King's treasury, is Spanish dollars; but there is also in general circulation a species of small base coin, called petis, which are cut out of plates composed of lead and tin; and, having a square hole in the middle, like the Chinese cash, are strung in parcels of 500 each, 16 of which are equivalent to a Spanish dollar. Accounts are kept in rix-dollars (a nominal coin) and stivers; the exchange between Spanish and rix-dollars being five of the latter for four of the former.

Weights and Measures.—Here, as well as at all other places where the Chinese have settled, their weights have become in common use. In weighing gold, the tale is considered as the tenth part of the catty, or equal to the weight of 2¼ Spanish dollars.

The commercial weights are gantons, baly, and copangs; 10 gantons make 1 baly, about 60 catties; and 50 balies 1 copang; by this measure rice is also sold.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

Imports.—Very few articles of European or Indian produce are disposed of at Palembang, its wants being supplied from Batavia. A few chests of opium and piece-goods form the principal part; the remainder consists of Spanish dollars, and for them only tin can be procured.

Exports.—Tin and pepper are the staple commodities here. The former is procured from Banca, and is delivered to the King at a fixed rate per pecul, and by him to the Dutch at about 15 rix-dollars per pecul, which, according to an old agreement with the Sultan, and formally renewed in 1777, is to be delivered to the Company, and no other Europeans are to be allowed to trade or navigate within his jurisdiction. In order to enforce these conditions, the Dutch are permitted to maintain a fort on the river, with a garrison of 50 or 60 men, which cannot be exceeded without giving umbrage, and to keep their own cruisers to prevent smuggling. It is stated that 3,000,000 lbs. are annually supplied to the Dutch, of which the

greater part is sent to China, and the remainder to Europe. On an average of seven years, the tin imported into Holland was 358,223 lbs.; the Company do not, however, take all that is produced, for in 1770 the Government at Batavia resolved "not to receive more than 25,000 peculs from Palembang every year;" notwithstanding which, the Dutch endeavour to prevent the tin being disposed of to other nations.

The pepper produced at Palembang is in general very foul, and considered inferior to what is brought from the western side of the island, and that of Malabar. The imports of pepper into Holland were, on an average of seven years, black, 2,994,683 lbs. and white 45,464 lbs. total 3,040,147 lbs.

The other articles procured here, are diamonds, canes, and rattans. Of the first, it is stated that about 1000 carats are annually purchased by the Dutch, and of the latter from 70 to 100,000 bundles per annum, which are principally sent to China. Palembang is much frequented by proas from Macassar, Borneo, Bally, and Java, which bring rice, salt, and some few cloths manufactured to the eastward, and worn by the Malays, taking in return opium and other Indian commodities.

DUTIES.

No regular trade being permitted here, presents only are necessary to the Dutch Resident, and the Shabundar or King's minister, according to the business likely to be transacted. On your arrival in the roads, send your long boat into the river (for water), and send accounts of the ship's arrival to the Governor. The fishermen will let the natives know of your arrival; and if the Governor means to do any business, you will have accounts in the course of three or four days; but should he not be prepared to deal with you, no time should be lost in getting your boat on board, and proceeding to sea.

BANCA.

This island is nearly opposite the various mouths of Palembang River. The passage between it and Sumatra is called the Straits of Banca, and extends in an undulating course about 34 leagues. Monopin Hill, which answers as a guide to ships approaching the island, is in latitude 2° South, and longitude 105° 14' East, about two leagues S. W. from which is Mintow Point, the western extremity of Banca, on which is a fort belonging to the Sultan, with many guns mounted. The principal town is a short distance to the eastward. The best anchorage is in 10 or 11 fathoms, about three miles off the town, Monopin Hill bearing N. 10° E. and Mintow Point N. 82° W.

This island is famous for its tin mines; they are said to have been accidentally discovered in 1810, by the burning of a house. They are worked by a colony of Chinese, consisting of upwards of 20,000 persons, under the nominal direction of the Sultan of Palembang, but for the account and benefit of the Dutch Company, who have endeavoured to monopolize the trade, and the Sultan, as has been already stated, is under a standing contract to furnish them with the tin produced, at a fixed rate per ton; but the enterprising spirit of private merchants finds means to elude their vigilance, and the annual export amounts to from forty to sixty thousand peculs. It is the only export they possess. The island is said to produce gold and silver, but the Sultan will not suffer the mines to be worked.

The Sultan and the Dutch Resident live at Palembang: with the latter some business may be transacted; in case he should decline trading, you must endeavour to find out the agents of the Princes of Banca, and those of the Caranga, or Prime Minister, who have always carried on an illicit trade, in opposition to the Dutch and the Sultan. Some Dutch cruisers are usually stationed here, under pretence of protecting the Sultan, and enforcing his laws; but more with a view of preventing his trading with any other nation. Access, however, may be had to the Datoo at Mintow, on observing certain ceremonies, which the commanders of the Dutch cruisers expect from strangers. The price of tin varies from 16 to 18 Spanish dollars per pecul, and is generally weighed with the Chinese dotchin, or steelyards. It is necessary to cut

through some of the slabs of tin, as it frequently happens that iron shot and stones are in the middle of them. Opium is usually brought by the country ships frequenting these Straits; but nothing will secure tin but Spanish dollars. There is another place for tin, called Yre Mass, at the north end of Banca; and you deal chiefly with the Captain Chinaman, who resides there.

Small ships or vessels passing through the Straits of Banca, ought always to be upon their guard to repel any attack that may be made by the piratical proas, numbers of which lurk about the mouths of the rivers on the Coast of Sumatra, to surprise defenceless vessels.

JAMBEE.

This river is of considerable size, and at an early stage of European commerce, was of some importance; both the English and Dutch had factories there: the former on an island at the entrance of the river called Barelly, in latitude about 1° 5 South, and longitude about 104° 20 East; and the latter at some distance up the river. The town of Jambee is about sixty miles from the sea. In 1620 a fleet of Portuguese ships were twenty-two days ascending the river, in order to destroy some Dutch ships which had taken shelter near the town.

The trade consists chiefly in gold-dust, pepper, rattans, and canes, but most of the gold proceeds across the country to the western coast, and the pepper, like that of Palembang, is not held in esteem. Sometimes, but rarely, a trading ship from Bengal endeavours to dispose of a few chests of opium; but the masters scarcely ever venture on shore, and deal with such of the Malays as come off to them at the sword's point, so strong is the idea of their treacherous character.

INDRAGIRI.

This river is about a degree to the northward of Jambee, and is navigable a great distance; sloops tide it up for five or six weeks, as they assert, anchoring as the ebb begins to make. It it but little frequented, though the Dutch are stated to have had a factory here formerly.

SIAC.

This river, which is the most considerable on the island, empties itself into the sea, nearly opposite to Malacca, in latitude about 1° 40 North. Opposite its entrance are several islands. A recent survey, executed by Mr. Francis Lynch, formerly a commander in the Country service, but now employed under the Government of Pulo Pinang, has made us more particularly acquainted with its size, advantages, and defects. From the place where it discharges itself into the Straits of Campar, or Bancalis, to the town of Siac, is about sixty-five miles, and from thence to a place called Pakanbharu, where the survey discontinues, is about 100 more. The width of the river is in general from about half to three quarters of a mile, and its depth from 7 to 15 fathoms; but on the bar at low water there are only 15 feet, and several shoals near its mouth; the tides about 11 feet at the town. Not far within the river is a small island, on which the Dutch had formerly a factory. According to the information of the natives, the river is navigable for sloops to a place called Panti Chermin, being eight days' sail, with the assistance of the tide, and within half a day's journey by land, of another named Patapahan, which boats also of 10 to 20 tons reach in two days. This is a great mart of trade with the interior, and here its merchants resort with their gold. Pakanbharu, the limit of Mr. Lynch's voyage, is much lower down, and the above-mentioned places are consequently not noticed by him.

The Dutch Company procured annually from Siac, for the use of Batavia, several rafts of spars for masts; and Captain Lynch having entered into an arrangement with the Rajah for the supply of Pulo Pinang with timber, much expence will be saved, as the mode previously adopted, of receiving supplies from Rangoon, was attended with a heavy charge, and much delay.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The commerce is chiefly carried on by kling vessels, as they are called, from the Coast of Coromandel, which are supplied, generally at Pulo Pinang, with the under-mentioned articles, which, with the piece-goods brought from the coast, find a ready sale here:

Brass wire.	Gunpowder.	Lead.	Salt.
Coarse cutlery.	Iron.	Muskets.	Steel.
China ware.	Looking glasses.	Opium.	Tobacco.

In return, they receive the under-mentioned goods, the prices varying according to the demand:

Brimstone.....	20 to 30 dollars per bahar.	Gutta Gambir....	according to quality.
Camphire, head	10 to 12 ditto per catty.	Gold-dust.....	23 to 25 dollars per buncal.
Bezoar stones	according to quality.	Rattans.....	10 to 12 dollars per 100 bundles.
Dammer.....	1 to 1½ dollar per pecul.	Sago.....	1 to 1½ dollar per pecul.
Elephants' teeth	according to size.	Wax	15 to 20 ditto.

Between Siac and Diamond Point is the river Arakan, or Rakan, by far the largest in the Island: it may be considered as an inlet of the sea, and is navigable for sloops to a great distance from the sea; but from the danger apprehended from the natives, it is scarcely at all known to Europeans.

On this part of the coast are prodigious numbers of wild swine, which, when killed and salted, make excellent food, and form a considerable article of trade.

BATOOBARRA

Is situated on the banks of a river, nearly opposite the Two Brothers, in latitude about 3° 25′ North, and is navigable by small vessels at high water; but the unfriendly disposition of the natives prevents Europeans frequenting it: they therefore carry their produce in their own proas to Prince of Wales's Island.

A considerable distance up this river is found a large brick building, concerning the erection of which no tradition is preserved among the people. It is described as a square, or several squares, and at one corner is an extremely high pillar, supposed by them to have been designed for carrying a flag; images, or relievos of human figures are carved in the walls, which they conceive to be Chinese (perhaps Hindoo) idols. The bricks, of which some were brought to Tappanooly, are of a smaller size than those used by the English.

PULO VARELLA.

This island is in latitude 3° 47′ North, and longitude 99° 36′ East, and is about twenty miles from the Coast of Sumatra. On the S. E. part is anchorage, where plenty of fire-wood may be got. This island being frequented by turtle, ships becalmed near it sometimes send their boats on shore to obtain a few of them; the crews ought to be guarded against the perfidy of the Batoobarra people, who frequent the island to look out for plunder, or to dry their nets, and who have more than once made slaves of the crews of boats that have landed to procure wood and water.

The north point of Sumatra, extending from Diamond Point, its N. E. extreme, to Point Pedro, its N. W. extreme, is denominated the Pedir Coast. Its extent is about forty-five leagues, in which space are numerous towns and villages, the principal of which are Telisomaway and Pedir.

EQUATOR
BILLITON
J A V A N
S E A
PART
OF
SUMATRA AND JAVA

CHAPTER XXV.

Java.

Strait of Sunda—Prince's Island—Cracatoa—Anjerie—North Island—Bantam; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Batavia; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Commerce with Europe—Commerce with India—Commerce with the British Settlements—Commerce with China—Commerce with Japan—Commerce with the Eastern Islands—Provisions and Refreshments—Cheribon—Samarang—Japara—Joana—Grissee—Sourabaya—Island of Madura—Passourwang—Panarookan—Balambouang—Rise and Progress of the Commerce of Holland with the East Indies—Straits to the Eastward of Java—Bally—Lombock—Alass—Sopy—Mangeray—Flores—Timor; its Extent—Coupang—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Dhelly—Coins—Imports and Exports—Provisions and Refreshments.

THIS island is separated from that of Sumatra by the Strait of Sunda. The length of this channel on the Sumatra side, from Flat Point to Hog Point, is about twenty leagues, and on the Java side, from Java Head to Bantam Point, about twenty-five leagues. There are several islands in the Strait, the principal of which are Hippins, or Prince's Island, and Cracatoa.

PRINCE'S ISLAND.

This island, called by the Malays Pulo Selan, is in the mouth of the Strait, about two leagues from Java, and six from Sumatra; its north end is in latitude about 6° 25' South, and longitude 105° 15' East; on its S. E. part is a peak, by which it is known. There is a bay on the S.W. side of the island, into which two small rivulets of fresh water empty themselves. There is a town upon it called Samadang, consisting of about 400 houses, divided into two parts by a small river. This island was formerly much frequented by the India ships of many nations, especially the English, who have of late forsaken it, and touch either at North Island, or Anjerie Point. Here may be got some excellent turtle, the largest for a dollar each; large fowls, 12 for a dollar; small deer, not larger than a rabbit, about two-pence each; larger deer, about the size of a sheep, half a dollar; many kinds of fish tolerably cheap; cocoa-nuts at the rate of 100 for a dollar, if picked; but if taken promiscuously, 130 for a dollar. Plantains, pine-apples, water melons, jacks, and pumpkins, besides yams and many other vegetables in plenty, and at reasonable rates.

The water is procured from a rivulet in a small sandy bay, at the easternmost part of it, where a path is cut through the woods to the place where you fill, about 100 yards up, but very convenient for rolling the casks; but if you fill below, though at low water, it will be brackish.

CRACATOA.

This island is remarkable for its peak, and is in latitude 6° 9 South, and longitude 105° 22 East. On its north side is a very convenient watering-place, where the Dutch ships often stop, about a quarter of a mile from which there is also a Malay town, where supplies, nearly the same as at Prince's Island, are to be procured. Abundance of turtle frequent the shores of this island.

ANJERIE.

Or Anjer village, is in latitude 6° 3 South, about two leagues to the eastward of the fourth point of Java, and is not easily perceived coming from the westward, being situated in a bay, where the houses are scattered amongst the cocoa-nut trees; it is nearly obscured by them, and by a chain of high hills inland, the easternmost of which is a sharp peaked hill, called Anjerie Peak, directly over the houses. The common anchorage is in from 9 to 14 fathoms abreast of the village.

Here is a small fort, consisting of a low earthen embankment, surrounded by a bamboo palisade, having a few small guns mounted. The Dutch kept an European serjeant and about ten men as a protection to the village against the Malay pirates, and as a post to receive and convey dispatches across the country, when any of their own ships, or those of any other nation appeared in the Strait. Within the palisade is the tomb of Colonel Cathcart, who died here, on his voyage to China, as minister from England.

The East India Company's ships frequently touch here to obtain refreshments. Buffaloes, hogs, poultry, and fruits are to be procured at reasonable rates: 12 to 15 fowls for a dollar, 5 or 6 large capons for a dollar; buffaloes from 10 to 12 dollars each; turtle is occasionally to be had, 3 or 4 dollars each; pine-apples, oranges, mangosteens, and other fruits in abundance.

The spring from which the water is filled, is only separated by a narrow slip of land from the sea; it is but indifferent. Ships therefore prefer watering at North Island, where the water is excellent.

NORTH ISLAND.

This island is close upon the Sumatra shore, without the Strait; it is about two miles in circumference, in latitude 5° 37 South, and longitude about 105° 55 East. It used to be much frequented for the purposes of wooding and watering; but the treachery of the Malays has occasioned the loss of so many lives, that the preference is given to Anjerie Point. Should a ship stop here, wood should be cut from the island. The water is procured from the main, about 500 yards from the beach. Care should be taken that the people do not go far from the water-side, or they will be cut off. The Malays bring off turtle, fowls, cocoa-nuts, pumpkins, yams, &c. in their proas to the ship, and sell them at reasonable prices.

BANTAM.

This city is seated at the bottom of a large bay formed by St. Nicholas or Bantam Point, which is in latitude 5° 52 South, and longitude 106° 2 East, and Point Pontang; there are many small islands in the bay, principally uninhabited. The marks for anchorage are Bantam Hill S.S.W. in six fathoms water.

The city is situated about one mile from the sea-side, between the branches of a river, which is about 180 feet over at its mouth; it is so very shallow, that at low water a common ship's boat does not lie afloat in it; at high water and in spring tides it is from five to seven feet deep. Though this is called Bantam River, it is properly only a branch of it; the river itself is divided above the town into three channels, of which this is the middle one; the other two run into the sea, about a league off on each side. The houses in the town are scattered to and fro without regularity, and round each is a plantation of cocoa-nut trees, the whole surrounded by a paling of split bamboo, by which each family is separated from its neighbour.

TELISOMAWAY

Is situated at the bottom of a bay to the S. E. of a point of the same name, and is known by a square clump of trees on its extremity, which makes it resemble an island, when first seen. The fort is situate near the mouth of a river, close to which are the town and bazar. The anchorage is about half a mile from the shore, the town bearing S.W. by W. and the Point N. 15 W.

This is a place of some trade, and is in the hands of a Rajah, with whom all your transactions are. At this place ships must be constantly guarded against the natives, and not permit any of them to come on board, as they have cut off many European vessels in these roads, and put the crews to death.

Between this place and Pedir are Passangan, Sambelangan, Murdoo, Ayrelaboo, and Gingham, places of Malay resort, the produce of which is generally carried to Pedir, or Acheen, in the country boats.

PEDIR,

From whence the coast takes its name, and in which the trade of all the other places west of Telisomaway centers, is situated up a small river, which boats may enter at low water, neap tides, but not until a quarter flood on the springs, for then there is a considerable surf on the bar. The marks of anchorage are Pedir Point, which is in latitude about 5° 29′ North, bearing N. W. and the entrance of the river, which is not very conspicuous, S. S. W. distance about two miles.

This is a place of considerable trade; vessels from the Coromandel Coast, Bengal, and other parts of India frequenting here, likewise proas from the Malay Peninsula and the neighbouring places.

Pedir was first visited by the Portuguese, under Sequeira, in 1509, where they found vessels from Pegu, Bengal, and other countries. The King, who, like other Mahometan Princes, is styled Sultan, sent off a deputation to them, accompanied with refreshments, excusing himself, on account of illness, from paying his compliments in person, but assured them that he should derive much pleasure from the friendship and alliance of the Portuguese, whose fame had reached his ears. Sequeira answered the message in such terms that, by the consent of the Sultan, a monument of their amity was erected on the shore; or more properly as the token of discovery and possession usually employed by the Europeans. They afterwards obtained permission to build a fort, but in a short time were expelled by the natives; since which period no European power has ever had a settlement on this coast.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Spanish dollars are the principal currency; the other coins are nearly similar to those at Acheen. The Pedir catty weighs 37 Spanish dollars, and the bahar is equal to 424 lbs. avoirdupois.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—The following is a list of India goods suitable to the market on the Pedir Coast, with the quantity of each particular article which should form an assortment.

Blue cloth	9 call	100 corge.	
Ditto	7 and 8 ditto	100 ditto.	
Blue Suckertoons, gold head		20 ditto.	
Brown cloth	8 and 9 call	100 ditto.	
White ditto	8 and 9 ditto	150 ditto.	
Negapatam salt		50 garce.	
Jaffnapatam tobacco, 1st sort		20 candies.	
Ditto	2d ditto	60 candies.	
Iron broad bars		500 maunds.	
Patna opium		30 chests.	

The following articles of European produce are brought here, and in general find a ready sale, viz.

Brass wire.	Gunpowder.	Iron, in bars.	Steel, in faggots.
Blunderbusses.	Guns, 1 to 3 cwt.	Looking glasses.	Swivels.
Coarse cutlery.	Gold lace.	Nails, of sizes.	Watches.

Exports.—The principal articles produced here, and the neighbouring places on the coast, are

Beetle-nut ..... 8 to 12 loxa per buncal.	Pepper ..... 30 to 40 dollars per bahar.
Canes ..... according to quality.	Rattans ..... 12 mayams ditto.
Gold dust ..... 24 to 26 dollars per buncal.	Wax, according to quality.

From the treacherous behaviour of the Malays on this coast, it is the common custom to buy and sell on board the ship; but occasionally business is transacted on shore with the principal merchants, if the commander is acquainted with the language. No duties are levied upon either exports or imports, but considerable presents are necessary to the Rajah or Chief, and the principal people about him.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Buffaloes and poultry are in abundance, particularly ducks and fowls, which are reasonable; likewise tropical fruits, similar to those at Acheen; and the sea supplies various sorts of fish.

A short distance from the commencement of the city is a large square, where three streets, leading from different parts of the town, unite to the westward of the river. This forms the eastern, as part of the city does the southern boundary of the square; the royal mosque is on the north, and the King's palace on the west side of it, which is built within a fortress, called the Diamond, an oblong square, about 840 feet in length, and nearly half as broad. It has regular bastions at the four corners, and several circular places of arms on the side; it mounted about 70 pieces of cannon, mostly 12 pounders. The bastions point N. E. S. E. S. W. and N. W. The walls are built of hard stone, and are 14 or 15 feet high. The fort is not discernible till close to it, on account of the numerous cocoa-nut trees, except the side next the square, where it is quite open. The approach to it is by a drawbridge, that is thrown over a moat which surrounds it; between this bridge and the gate of the fort is an esplanade, on the right side of which stands a large building, where the ceremony of crowning the Prince is performed. On the other side are the King's stables and couch-houses. At the gate of the fort a Dutch guard is kept. The palace is about 20 paces within the gate, consisting of many dwellings connected together, and covering nearly the whole space of ground within the fort. In the centre appears a square building, which has two roofs, rising above each other to such a height that it is visible three leagues off at sea; it is mostly built of brick, and covered with tiles, but without any regularity in its architecture.

On the east bank of the river, at a short distance from its mouth, is situated the Dutch fort, Speelwyck, which was built during the civil wars in 1682. It is a square, defended at three of its angles by regular bastions, and at the fourth by a demi-bastion. It is mounted with 48 pieces of cannon of various sizes. The north, south, and west sides are covered by a wet ditch, which has a communication with the river that washes the east side; the walls are constructed of a heavy and hard stone, and are about 14 feet high. In the interior of the fort there is an open square, planted with trees in the middle, the sides of which are formed by several buildings, wherein part of the Company's servants reside. The house of the Commander is handsome; the other buildings consist of barracks for the soldiers, warehouses, &c. The gate is very near the river side, over which there is a drawbridge, and opposite to it a long street, where the Company's servants reside, for whom there is no room in the fort, together with a few Chinese. The Dutch kept a garrison here of about 150 men, and a like force at Fort Diamond; but a considerable number are generally confined by sickness, this place being considered as unhealthy, if not more so than Batavia.

The King of Bantam, although a vassal to the Dutch Company, is a sovereign Prince, lord and master of life and death, and uncontrouled in his authority over his own subjects; but is restricted from entering into any alliances or engagements with any European or Indian power, as likewise from selling the productions of his territories to any other than to the Company.

Bantam was first visited by the English under Captain Lancaster, in December, 1602, who were kindly received, and obtained permission to settle a factory, which became the principal place of trade, and was formed into a Presidency. In 1630 it was made subordinate to Surat. In 1670 it was stipulated by treaty, that the Company should pay annually, in lieu of all duties, 4,000 rials per annum; and that their ships, vessels, and junks should have, without any duties imposed on them, a free export and import trade, reserving only to the King the established duties on pepper; and that opium should have a free import, but be sold at the Custom House only, and not in the towns, or at any other place, under the penalty of being forfeited, provided that all military stores imported by the English should be offered for sale to the King exclusively. In 1677 the Resident and principal servants of the agency were massacred by the natives; and in 1682, the Dutch having obtained possession of Bantam by assisting the King's son in a rebellion against his father, the English were finally expelled, after having carried on a trade upwards of 80 years; since which period Bantam has been subordinate to Batavia.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Coins.—The coins current are similar to those at Batavia, viz. Spanish dollars, duccatoons, rupees, schillings, dubbeltjees, doits, and cash; the King having no coin of his own. The cash are of different value, according to the quantity in the market. They keep their accounts thus:

10 peccoes 10 laxsans 10 catties 10 utas	make	1 laxsan. 1 catty. 1 uta. 1 bahar.

Each peccoo should contain 1000 cash, but they are frequently deficient; the price varies from 25 to 35 for a Spanish dollar.

Weights and Measures.—Pepper is sold by the timbang, which is equal to half a Chinese pecul, or 62½ Dutch lbs.: 3 peculs are the small bahar, and 4½ peculs the great bahar. But the natives not being expert in weighing, a measure called a kulack is used, which contains 7½ catties; but this depends upon the quality of the pepper, whether light or heavy.

The weight for gold, musk, &c. is the tale; the China one is only six-tenths of that of Bantam.

The long measure is the hasta, which is 18 English inches.

The commerce carried on between Bantam and other parts of India and China is very trifling, the trade centering in Batavia, to which the pepper, and other produce of the territories of the King of Bantam, are sent, and from whence the foreign articles necessary for the consumption, is imported.

BATAVIA

Was the principal settlement of the Dutch in the East Indies, and to which all others were subordinate. It is situated at the bottom of a large bay formed by the points Ontong, Java, and Crawang, and is in latitude 6° 9 South, and longitude 106° 52 East. It is considered one of the best harbours in India, having a number of small islands about two or three leagues from the city, which shelter the bay from N. W. to N. E. the principal of which are Onrust, Edam, Cooper's Island, and Purmerend. Large ships generally ride at single anchor in the roads, at about 1½ mile from the shore, in six fathoms, the dome of the principal church bearing about south; but smaller vessels approach within a mile of the shore.

Fronting the small river, or canal, which leads to the city, there is a bar, on which there are about three feet at low water. The channel for boats to enter, is to the eastward of the bar; and as there is at times a surf upon it at low water, when blowing strong in the N. W. monsoon, strangers ought not then to send their boats to the river, as many have been overset upon the bar, and the crews devoured by alligators, which are here of a large size, and very numerous.

The City of Batavia is an oblong square, the longest way facing the east and west about one mile, and the shortest facing the north and south, about three-quarters of a mile broad. Through the middle of the city, from north to south, runs the river Jaccatra, over which are three bridges, one at the upper end of the town; another at the lower part, near the Castle; and the third about the middle, being thence called the middle point bridge. Two of these are built of stone; close to the middlemost there is a large square redoubt, provided with some pieces of cannon, which commands the river both upwards and downwards, besides the city moats which run entirely round: each division, on either side of the river, has two canals running parallel with the longest sides, and intersected at right angles by several cross canals. The breadth of the river within the city is about 180 feet; it runs into the sea, past the Castle and the Admiralty wharf. On both sides of the mouth are long piers of wood and brick-work, about 3800 feet in

length, taken from the moat of the city. The vessels belonging to the merchants are laid up and repaired between these piers, on the west side; but along the east side, the passage is kept open for the lighters, which go in and out of the city with the cargoes of the ships. At the outward point of the eastern pier there is a shed, which serves for a stable for the horses which draw the small vessels and boats up and down the river. Opposite to this is a hornwork, called the Water Fort, built at a considerable expence. It is constructed of a kind of coral rock, and defended by heavy cannon; within it are barracks for the garrison, and there is no other approach to it than along the western pier.

The citadel of Batavia, which forms the north boundary of the eastern division of the city, is a regular square fortress with four bastions, which are connected by high curtains, except on the south side. The walls and ramparts are built of coral rock, and are about 20 feet high. It is surrounded by a wet ditch, over which, on the south side, is a drawbridge; between the moat and the buildings within the fort on this side, there is a large esplanade. In the centre of the buildings that look towards the city, is a great gate and a broad passage, with warehouses on each side, leading to another esplanade on the north side, enclosed between the ramparts and the buildings, all of which are appropriated to the use of the Company. The Government House forms the left wing of the buildings, looking towards the south. Over the Castle bridge is a large square, planted with tamarind trees; the entrance to it from the city is over a bridge, and through a stately gate. On the west side of the square stands the artillery house and provision magazine, both of which reach behind to the river side, so that vessels are loaded and unloaded with the greatest ease. On the opposite side is the iron magazine, and what is termed the grass-plat, or place of execution. There are a number of cannon and other warlike implements ranged upon the plain.

The city is surrounded by a wall of coral rock, and is defended by 22 bastions, provided with artillery, which are mostly of a square or semicircular shape, projecting beyond the curtains, which with the wall itself are built nearly perpendicular. There are five gates to the city: one to the east, called the Rotterdam gate; two to the south, the New gate and Diest gate; one to the west, the Utrecht gate; and one on the north side, to the west of the river, called the Square gate. Near to the last-mentioned gate, and opposite to the Castle, is the Admiralty wharf, and not far off, the warehouses for naval stores, workshops, and other offices that relate to shipping; likewise the houses of the commandant and comptrollers of equipment. In the S. E. corner of the city is the place where the Company's mechanics and labourers have their abode. There is a fine town-house, and several churches and other places of worship. The streets are laid out in straight lines, and cross each other at right angles, each street having a canal in the middle, cased with stone walls, which rise into a low parapet on each side: upon the whole, Batavia may rank among the neatest and handsomest cities in the world. The population of Batavia is estimated at about 150,000 inhabitants; two-thirds of whom are Chinese, who principally reside in the suburbs, to the southward and westward of the city. The natives, Armenians, Persees, Hindoos, Arabs, and Europeans, make up the remainder; the latter do not exceed 1500. Few of them sleep in the town where their warehouses are, to which they go at six o'clock in the morning, transact business till 10 or 11, and then return to the country, on account of the unwholesomeness of the city. Noon is the general dinner hour, and until five or six in the evening, no one is to be seen on business, which is almost wholly transacted in the morning.

The island of Onrust is about three leagues N. W. from Batavia, and is nearly round. It rises six or eight feet above the surface of the sea, and is of small extent, being about 4,800 feet in circumference. In the centre of the island, and within the fort, consisting of four bastions and three curtains, stand the warehouses and other buildings, likewise a small church. The warehouses are about twelve in number, and are generally full of goods of various kinds. On the north side of the island are two sawmills; and on the south side there is a long pier-head, on which are three large wooden cranes, erected for the purpose of fixing or unstepping masts. Three ships can lie here behind each other, alongside the

pier, in deep water, to be repaired, or to receive or discharge their cargoes. There is another pier, a little more to the westward, called the Japan pier, where one more ship can lie to load or unload. There are 20 or more feet of water against the piers, and it rises about 5 feet once in 24 hours. All ships that require it, are hove down at the wharfs along the piers, and receive every necessary reparation with convenience, safety, and dispatch. The government of this island is under the master carpenter, and his situation is reckoned a very profitable one.

Edam is about three leagues N. N. E. from Batavia; it is very woody, and has abundance of large and ancient trees. The Company have some warehouses on this island for salt; but the chief use they make of it, is as a place of exile for criminals, who are employed in making cordage, and over whom a ship's Captain is placed as commandant.

Cooper's Island is about 1600 yards from Onrust, and about one-third less in size. The Company have several warehouses upon it, in which coffee is chiefly laid up. There are two pier-heads, where vessels may load and discharge at its south side. There are two batteries mounting 12 guns on this island.

The Island of Purmerend is to the eastward of Onrust, and about half as large again. It is planted with shady trees, and in the centre is a large building, which serves for a hospital, or lazaretto, and is supported by voluntary contributions.

When the Dutch first visited Java, a town stood on the site of Batavia, called Jaccatra, the King of which was in alliance with the English, which gave great umbrage to the Dutch. The two Companies came to action. For a time the latter had the superiority, and, in the year 1619, after a successful action at sea, compelled the Dutch to retreat to Amboyna; but they soon after returned in great force, and obliged the English by capitulation totally to evacuate the place. On the 26th of March, 1619, the Dutch took, plundered, and totally destroyed the town of Jaccatra, and built near its site the present Batavia, of which they continued in unmolested possession nearly two centuries.

The English, during the long war in which they had been engaged with the Dutch, let them remain in possession of Java: but the French having formally annexed Holland to France, and sent out troops to take possession of Batavia and the other places belonging to the Dutch in the Eastern seas, an expedition was fitted out against Batavia from the British settlements in 1811, accompanied by Lord Minto, Governor-General of India, in person. The fleet anchored in the roads on the 4th of August; the troops were immediately landed, about 10 miles to the eastward of the city, and on the 6th the army was put in motion. On the 8th the city was taken possession of without opposition, the garrison having withdrawn to their fortified camp, a short distance in the country, after destroying the greater part of the warehouses and public stores of every kind. This camp was taken by assault on the 25th of August, and on the 15th of September, General Jansens proposed terms of capitulation, which were concluded on the 18th, by which all the possessions remaining to the enemy on the Island of Java and its dependencies were surrendered to the British arms; Governor-General Jansens, his staff, and the remnant of his troops being prisoners of war. By the terms of the capitulation, all private property was to be respected, and all charitable establishments, sanctioned by the Government, to have their property preserved to them; but all public property of every kind, treasure, arms, ammunition, stores, provisions, as well as the objects of commerce, the property of the State, wherever situated within the limits of the Island of Java, or the settlements at the other islands depending on the Government of Java, was to be given up without reserve.

By this important conquest, in the words of Lord Minto, "an empire which for two centuries has contributed greatly to the power, prosperity, and grandeur of one of the principal and most respected States in Europe, has been wrested from the short usurpation of the French Government, added to the dominion of the British Crown, and converted, from a seat of hostile machination and commercial competition, into an augmentation of British power and prosperity."

COINS.

Accounts are kept in rix-dollars, an imaginary coin, each 48 stivers, and each stiver 16 pennings; but the currency is doits, stivers, dubbeltjees, schillings, and rupees, thus divided:

4 doits	make	1 stiver.
2½ stivers	make	1 dubbeltjee.
3 dubbeltjees	make	1 schilling.
4 schillings	make	1 rupee.

Gold Coins.—The following are current at Batavia, with their sterling value, reckoning gold at the standard price of £3 17s. 10½d. per ounce, and the rates at which they pass current:

Milled Dutch ducat weighs 2,5½ contains 52,8 grains pure gold, worth £0 9 4 passes for 132 stivers
Old Japan copang ..... 11,9 ..... 232,2 ..... ditto ..... 2 1 3½ ..... 480 ditto
New ditto ..... 8,9½ ..... 134,5 ..... ditto ..... 1 3 9½ ..... 288 ditto
English guineas are sometimes to be met with; when new, they pass for about 240 stivers; but when old, only from 200 to 204, which are equal to about 17 shillings sterling.
East India mohur, or gold rupee, passes for 480 stivers; its subdivisions in proportion.
Doubloon, or Portugal £3 12s. piece, passes for 16 Spanish dollars.

Silver Coins.—The following are current at Batavia, and at the following rates:

Florin, or guilder, weighs 6 dwts. 18 grs. contains 145 grains of silver, worth 1s. 8d. passes for 20 stivers.
3 guilder piece, weighs 1 oz. 3 grs. ..... 435,7 ditto ..... 5s. 0d. ..... 60 ditto.
Duccatoon, milled, is the current coin of all the Company's settlements, and passes for ..... 80 ditto.
Unmilled, or old duccatoon ..... 78 ditto.

The milled duccatoon, though it passes current at 80 stivers, is not, in proportion to the other coins, worth more than 66 stivers; it weighs 1 oz. 22 grs. and contains of pure silver 471,6 grains. The following shews the value of a duccatoon at Batavia, according to the price of silver in Europe.

Silver per oz.	Each Duccatoon.	Silver per oz.	Each Duccatoon.	Silver per oz.	Each Duccatoon.
s. d.	s. d. dec.	s. d.	s. d. dec.	s. d.	s. d. dec.
5 0	5 4½ 0,33	5 4	5 8 2,48	5 8	6 0 2,64
5 0½	5 4½ 0,47	5 4½	5 9 0,63	5 8½	6 0 3,71
5 1	5 5 1,62	5 5	5 9 2,77	5 9	6 1 2,93
5 1½	5 5 3,76	5 5½	5 10 0,92	5 9½	6 2 0,07
5 2	5 6 1,90	5 6	5 10 2,06	5 10	6 2 2,21
5 2½	5 7 0,05	5 6½	5 11 0,21	5 10½	6 3 0,35
5 3	5 7 2,19	5 7	5 11 2,35	5 11	6 3 2,49
5 3½	5 8 0,34	5 7½	6 0 0,49	6 0	6 4 2,77

Milled rupee, in the Company's accounts, is 24 stivers, but passes current for ..... 30 stivers.
Schillings are of two sorts; the one the same as in Holland, passes for ..... 6 ditto.
The new, which are called skip schillings, pass for ..... 7½ ditto.
Rix-dollar, which is coined at Batavia ..... 48 ditto.
English and German crowns vary according to the demand and quantity, from ..... 60 to 63 ditto.
Spanish dollars pass at 32 stivers; the half and quarter dollars in proportion.

The Bengal Sicca rupee passes for 31½ stivers; taken in exchange for Spanish dollars at the rate of 2 Sicca rupees and 1 stiver per dollar; the value being fixed at 31½ stivers; the half Sicca rupee passes for 15¾ stivers.

The Surat and Arcot rupees are of equal value with that of Batavia, and pass current for 30 stivers; the half rupee of each sort passes for 15 stivers.

The American dollar passes for 60 stivers, and the gold eagle for 10 Spanish dollars.

The following is an estimate of the exchange between Batavia and London, shewing how many rix-dollars are equal to £100 sterling; the price of silver at Batavia being from 125 to 135 rix-dollars for 100 Spanish dollars, and the price of silver at London from 5s. 2d. to 5s. 8d. per ounce.

Rix Dollars per 100 Spanish Dollars.	PRICE OF MEXICO SILVER PER OUNCE IN LONDON.						
	5s. 2d.	5s. 3d.	5s. 4d.	5s. 5d.	5s. 6d.	5s. 7d.	5s. 8d.
	R. Drs. dec.	R. Drs. dec.	R. Drs. dec.	R. Drs. dec.	R. Drs. dec.	R. Drs. dec.	R. Drs. dec.
125	556,327	547,496	538,942	530,650	522,610	514,810	507,239
126	560,778	551,876	543,253	534,895	526,791	518,928	511,297
127	565,228	556,256	547,565	539,141	530,972	523,047	515,355
128	569,679	560,636	551,876	543,385	535,153	527,165	519,413
129	574,129	565,016	556,188	547,631	539,334	531,283	523,470
130	578,580	569,396	560,499	551,876	543,515	535,402	527,529
131	586,030	573,776	564,810	556,121	547,695	539,521	531,587
132	587,481	578,156	569,122	560,367	551,876	543,639	535,644
133	591,932	582,537	573,434	564,612	556,057	547,378	539,703
134	596,382	586,916	577,745	568,857	560,238	551,876	543,760
135	600,833	591,296	582,057	573,102	564,419	555,995	547,818

£100 sterling will yield Rix Dollars.

COPPER COINS.—Dubbeltjees, which are of two kinds; the old passes current for 2 stivers, and the new for 2½ stivers. Doits, 10 of which make 1 dubbeltjee: there are also two doit pieces and half doits. These have all the Company's arms, and no others are taken. China cash are used in the bazar in purchasing small articles of provision.

WEIGHTS.

The Chinese weights, tales, catties, and peculs, are those in common use.

16 tales	make	1 catty, which is considered 1⅓ lb. Dutch.
100 catties		1 pecul.
3 peculs		1 small bahar.
4⅓ peculs		1 large bahar.

The pecul weighs 125 Dutch lbs. which are equal to 133⅓ lbs. avoirdupois weight: by these weights most articles of merchandise are bought and sold, but they require comparison with European weights.

Rice and other grain are sold by the coyang and ganton; the coyang should weigh, on the receipt in the warehouses, 3300 lbs. net, though it is received from the outports as 3,500 lbs. Dutch.

The Dutch Company made the following allowances to their warehouse-keepers and others, on goods received by them into the warehouses, in lieu of deficiency, waste, &c.

Coffee is received at 140 lbs. per pecul, and delivered out by bales of 2 peculs, or 250 lbs.

Sugar, 6 stivers per pecul on powder sugar, and 9 stivers per pecul on sugar-candy.

Pepper.—On that imported in Company's ships from Palembang and Bantam, ¼ per cent.; on that brought by native vessels, a draft of 5 lbs. for every weigh of 300 lbs.

Saltpetre is received into the warehouses with an overweight of 2 per cent. and delivered out without overweight, and an allowance of 2 per cent. for waste.

Calistour wood from Coromandel is received with 1 per cent. overweight, and 2 per cent. for waste.
Sapan wood from Siam and Bima ..... ½ ditto..... 2 ditto.
Sandal wood from all places ..... ½ ditto..... 2 ditto.
Beetle-nut, 2 per cent. for waste, on what is weighed off in the year, and 3 per cent. upon what remains longer than that period in the warehouses.
Opium.—For every chest, without distinction as to size..... 1½ rix-dollar.
On all Company's goods sold by auction, an allowance of..... 5 per cent.
On woollen, and other European goods sold by the ell ..... 4½ ditto.
On mace, cinnamon, and nutmegs, sold from the retail warehouse..... 7½ ditto.
On colours, drugs, and wares of that description..... 7½ ditto.
On iron in bars and iron hoops..... 4 ditto.
And an allowance similar to the above, on every article received into, or sent out of the warehouses.

The Dutch weights in use at Batavia and its subordinates are the following:

32 ases	make	1 engle.
20 engles	make	1 ounce.
16 ounces	make	1 lb.
1000 ases	make	7417 grains troy.

24 small penns	make	1 grain.
24 grains	make	1 groot penn.
12 groot penns	make	1 mark fine silver.
1000 Spanish doll.	make	109 marks 6 oz.

1 lb. Dutch troy, is 15 oz. 16 dwts. 11 grs. Eng. troy
135 Dutch troy lbs. are 178 English troy lbs.
The mark is reckoned to be 8 troy ounces.
19 marks Dutch troy are 164 ounces standard gold.

MEASURES.

1 measure is 5 gantons, 230 gantons are 1 last, 1 last is 46 measures.
1 leager of wine is 360 rands, each rand 10 mursies, and a leager of arrack is 396 rands.
1 awm of ale or wine is 9 rands.
1 ell is 27 English inches.
1 vorm of firewood is 225 feet long and 4 feet high.
1 ell of stone is 10 inches long, 5 broad, and 2½ thick.

COMMERCE WITH EUROPE.

IMPORTS.—The chief article imported from Europe on account of the Dutch Company was bullion, of which it is calculated that upwards of £500,000 sterling was annually sent from Holland; the other articles imported by them, and the commanders and officers of their ships, were as follow:

Anchors & grapnels.	Gin, Hollands.	Looking-glasses.	Porter.
Beer.	Garden seeds.	Lead.	Saddlery.
Boots and shoes.	Guns and pistols.	Lace, gold & silver.	Ship-chandlery.
Buttons.	Gunpowder.	Musical instruments	Shot.
Brandy.	Glass ware.	Mathematical ditto.	Steel.
Cabinet ware.	Hams.	Millinery.	Stationery.
Cheese.	Hats.	Nails.	Tin ware.
Chintz and muslins.	Haberdashery.	Oilman's stores.	Tobacco.
Claret.	Hosiery.	Pipes, tobacco.	Tin plates.
Cloths.	Jewellery.	Painter's colours.	Toys.
Cutlery.	Iron.	Perfumery.	Wines.
Confectionary.	Ironmongery.	Plate & plated ware.	Watches.

Since the capture of Java by the English, all kinds of goods have been sent from India to Batavia; but many of them being ill calculated for the market, have been sold at a considerable loss.

EXPORTS.—The staple articles of Java are pepper, sugar, and coffee. The following is the estimated amount of the former article that was received annually into the warehouses at Batavia:

	Black	White
Bantam, and its dependencies	3,500,000 lbs.	20,000 lbs.
Palembang, ditto	500,000	5,000
Sumatra, West Coast	1,120,000	10,000
Borneo and the Eastern Islands	1,120,000	16,000
Forming a total of	6,240,000 lbs.	51,000 lbs.

The quantity of sugar produced on Java is very considerable; in some years to the extent of upwards of 10,000,000 lbs. Great part of it used to be exported to India, as Batavia supplied most of the English settlements with sugar at one period. The quantity sent to Europe seldom amounted to 1,500,000 lbs. and was always of the best sort.

The growth of coffee has of late years wonderfully increased on the island. The quantity sold at the Dutch Company's sales in Holland, sometimes amounted to near 10,000,000 lbs. the greater part of which was the produce of Java. The price varies from 4 to 5 dollars per pecul.

The other articles exported from Batavia to Holland on account of the Company, and in the tonnage allowed to the commanders and officers of their ships, were as follow:

Arrack.	Camphire.	Dragon's blood.	Tea.
Borax.	China-ware.	Elephants' teeth.	Tin.
Benjamin.	Cubebs.	Japanned ware.	Tutenague.
Cardamums.	Cotton.	Soy.	Turmeric.

exclusive of a number of the finer articles, which were clandestinely taken on board in India.

COMMERCE WITH INDIA.

The trade carried on with Surat was one of the most advantageous belonging to the Dutch East India Company, more particularly at a former period, the articles being of the first necessity with the natives; and as the Company were the exclusive importers of them, they made whatever prices they chose to require, or could command, according to the quantity they might be pleased to import.

It appears, from a report made in Holland on the state of their trade with the western side of India, that in the ten years, from 1662–3 to 1673–4, spices yielded an annual profit of 520 per cent. on the prime cost, making a clear gain on the quantity sent thither in each year, of £30,415. In the ten years, from 1688–9 to 1697–8, they yielded every year upon an average 850 per cent. gain, making a yearly sum of £46,315; and upon the other articles a further annual average of £23,266, being about 50 per cent. profit on their prime cost.

The following are the articles in which the Dutch traded to Surat, and the western side of India:

Aloes.	Cinnamon.	Gum-lac.	Sugar.
Benjamin.	Camphire.	Mace.	Sugar candy.
Beetle-nut.	Cardamums.	Nutmegs.	Teas.
Cloves.	Cowries.	Pepper.	Tin.
Copper, Japan.	China root.	Quicksilver.	Tutenague.
China-ware.	Ebony.	Sapan-wood.	Vermillion.

Latterly this branch of trade declined considerably, being chiefly in the hands of the English.

COMMERCE WITH THE BRITISH SETTLEMENTS.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Batavia from the British settlements in India, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Batavia to the British settlements in India during the same period.

IMPORTS INTO BATAVIA.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	3,37,061	11,250	3,48,311
1803	92,198	——	92,198
1804	——	——	——
1805	——	——	——
1806	5,04,485	39,724	5,44,209
Total.	9,33,744	50,974	9,84,718

EXPORTS FROM BATAVIA.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	6,88,638	93,029	7,81,667
1803	9,06,372	1,07,654	10,14,026
1804	19,946	——	19,946
1805	66,845	——	66,845
1806	40,950	——	40,950
Total.	17,22,751	2,00,683	19,23,434

Merchandise imported into Batavia from the British settlements in India, during five years, 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees	9,33,744
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		17,22,751
Exports exceed the imports		7,89,007
Treasure imported from the British settlements during the above period	50,974	
Ditto exported to ditto	2,00,683	
		1,49,709
Balance *in favour* of Batavia	Sicca Rupees	6,39,298

being in the following proportions to the British settlements:

Against Fort St. George and its dependencies	Sicca Rupees	4,92,269
Against Bombay and Surat		7,96,535
In favour of Bengal		6,49,506

The principal articles which are brought to Batavia from the various parts of India, Persia, &c. are chiefly piece-goods from Surat, Bengal, and Madras. In these individuals are prohibited trading. The trade in opium, of which from 800 to 1000 chests are annually disposed of at this place, is in the hands of a society, and individuals are also prohibited trading in it; so that whatever is imported, must be tendered to the Government, if it is intended for sale at the settlement.

The exportation of specie is strictly prohibited; no commander of a ship, or merchant, who imports dollars, must take any of them back again. The Chinese who farm the customs, closely examine whatever is carried on board; and if they find any gold or silver coin, it is not only confiscated, but the owners are also subject to fine and imprisonment.

COMMERCE WITH THE EASTERN ISLANDS.

To the islands of Borneo, Celebes, Amboyna, Banda, &c. the Dutch sent piece-goods of the various descriptions enumerated under the respective places, opium, and a variety of Indian and European goods; and as Java is considered the granary of this part of the world, those islands are supplied with rice from Batavia, in some years to the extent of 14,000 tons per annum.

In vessels belonging to Dutch merchants resident, or in proas from the different places, are imported the following articles:

Ambergris.	Cloves.	Gold dust.	Rice.
Agala wood.	Camphire.	Gutta Gambir.	Sandal wood.
Bird's nests.	Cutch.	Mace.	Sago.
Beech de mer.	Clove bark.	Missoy bark.	Sapan wood.
Bezoar stones.	Cajeputa oil.	Nutmegs.	Stick-lac.
Benjamin.	Diamonds.	Pearls.	Tin.
Black wood.	Dragon's blood.	Pearl shells.	Timber.
Birds of Paradise.	Elephants' teeth.	Pepper.	Tortoise-shell.
Beetle-nut.	Fish maws.	Rattans.	Wax.

likewise slaves from Pulo Neas on the Coast of Sumatra, from Celebes, and the other Eastern islands.

COMMERCE WITH CHINA.

In the months of November and December the China junks generally arrive, bringing with them, as articles of trade, and for the use of their countrymen resident here, and the Europeans, the following articles:

Alum.	Cinnabar.	Lackered ware.	Raw silk.
Borax.	Furniture.	Lanterns.	Sweetmeats.
Brimstone.	Fruits, dried.	Linens.	Silk-goods.
China camphire.	Fans, of sorts.	Musk.	Tea.
Cassia.	Gongs.	Mother o'pearl.	Toys.
China ware.	Gold thread.	Nankeen.	Tutenague.
China root.	Indian ink.	Paper.	Tobacco.

The commodities exported to China, principally in their own junks, are as follow, the prices varying according to the demand:

Arrack, Batavia....40 to 45 rix-dollars per leager.	Pepper.....12 to 14 Spanish dollars per pecul.
Bird's nests, head...18 to 20 Spanish drs. per catty.	Pearls .....according to size and quality.
Ditto..... belly.. 8 to 12 ditto.	Pearl shells .. 6 to 7 Spanish dollars per pecul.
Beetle-nut ..... 3 to 3½ ditto per pecul.	Rice ..... 2 to 2½ ditto.
Beech de mer .....10 to 15 ditto.	Rattans ..... 2½ to 3 ditto.
Cotton wool .....according to quality.	Sapan wood.. 3 to 4 ditto.
Cloves.....½ Spanish dollar per Dutch lb.	Sandal wood...15 to 40 ditto.
Camphire.....according to quality.	Sago ..... 1½ to 2½ ditto.
Mace .....2 Spanish dollars per Dutch lb.	Tin.....15 to 17 ditto.
Nutmegs .....1½ to 2 ditto.	Wax .....20 to 25 ditto

COMMERCE WITH JAPAN.

The exports to Japan, which are carried in two ships that annually proceed to that country, are

Camphire.	Lead.	Quicksilver.	Tortoise-shell.
Cloves.	Nutmegs.	Sugar.	Vermilion.
China root.	Pepper.	Sapan wood.	Woollens.
Elephants' teeth.	Piece-goods.	Tin.	Wax.

exclusive of many small articles carried by the commanders and officers of the ships.

The imports from Japan consisted principally of copper; likewise Japan camphire, soy, China-ware, lackered ware, silk goods, and fans to a small amount. The remaining proceeds were brought in silver.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Bullocks, hogs, and sheep are to be procured here, with poultry, vegetables, and fruits in abundance.
Buffaloes are very poor, and weigh 80 to 100 lbs. each.....12 to 15 dollars.
Hogs, which are of the China breed, and very excellent, 70 to 80 lbs. each 6 to 7 ditto.
Sheep, the flesh of which is hard, tough, and in every respect bad.....2½ to 3 ditto.
Goats, which are, if possible, worse than the sheep..... 2 to 3 ditto.
Fowls are in general of a large size, very good, and in plenty ..... 2 to 3 ditto per dozen.
Ducks and geese are very cheap, but turkeys are extravagantly dear.

Fish is amazingly plentiful, and yams are very good, at 2 rix-dollars per pecul. Of fruits they have the following:

Custard apples.	Limes.	Oranges.	Papaw apples.
Durion.	Lemons.	Pomegranates.	Pine-apples.
Grapes.	Mangosteens.	Pumplenoses.	Tamarinds.
Guavas.	Mangoes.	Plantains.	Water melons.

Along the north coast of Java are many towns and villages; the principal of which are Cheribon, Samarang, Japara, Joana, Grissee, Sourabaya, Passourwang, and Panaroukan.

CHERIBON.

This town is about 35 leagues to the eastward of Batavia, and lies at the bottom of a large bay. Ships anchor to the N. E. of the fort, in 3½ to 5 fathoms water, at about 2 leagues from the shore. Here is a river, having two branches, which fall into the sea a short distance from each other; the country vessels, drawing from 4 to 6 feet water, are obliged, in coming in or going out of the principal branch, to wait for high tides, the bar having only 2½ feet on it at low water.

On the right bank of the river, near the sea-side, stands the fort, which is small, and built of brick, surrounded with a fosse, over which is a bridge with a redoubt; the fort is of little consequence, its embrasure parapet being but 18 inches thick. It has a few small guns mounted, which serve to salute ships visiting the port, and as a defence against the Malay pirates, who continually infest the vicinity. The town is large; the principal houses are surrounded with gardens, and have a picturesque appearance. There are a number of Chinese resident here, and a considerable trade is carried on in the produce of this part of the coast, which consists of coffee, cotton, indigo, sugar, timber, and pepper; the latter article formerly grew in such abundance, that in 1680 the bahar of 375 Dutch lbs. was bought for 10 Spanish dollars. It yields yearly 1000 lasts of rice, and 1,000,000 lbs. of sugar; and in 1778, 1,000,000 lbs. of Cheribon coffee were sold in Holland at 11 stivers per lb.

Provisions and refreshments of all kinds are in abundance, and at reasonable prices.

SAMARANG.

This town, which is the principal on the island next to Batavia, is at the bottom of a bay, in latitude 6° 57′ South, and longitude about 110° 34′ East, and situated on the east side of a river of the same name, which has a bar, having on it, at low water, not more than two feet. It is strongly fortified, and has a small neat church. A guard-house has been recently erected. The Government house is facing the river; the

warehouses and workshops stand in a row under one roof to the S.W. of the town by the river's side; they are about 300 feet long. The Chinese and Javanese towns are on the western side of the river, and that of the Bouginese to the eastward. A bridge is thrown across the river from the fort, leading to the usual residence of the Governor, which is a large and handsome building.

The town is surrounded by a wall and ditch; there are likewise a very good hospital, a public school, and a small theatre. This Government is said to be one of the most lucrative in the Dutch Company's possessions. The shoalness of the coast makes the road of Samarang inconvenient, both on account of the great distance at which large ships are obliged to lie from the shore, and of the landing in the river, which cannot be entered before half-flood. The anchorage is with the flagstaff bearing S. S. E. and the high land of Japara N. E. by E. in five fathoms, about three miles from the shore.

Provisions are cheap here; beef 10 doits per lb. and 6 to 8 fowls for a Spanish dollar.

JAPARA

Is situated about twenty-five miles N. E. of Samarang, on the banks of a small river, having a bar, on which are not more than three feet at low water. The fort is on the northern side, upon a small eminence; it is triangular, one bastion pointing to the sea, the other two to the land; and in the middle of the curtain, which connects these two last, is the gate. This fort is mounted with several pieces of cannon of different calibres; it is built of stone, and kept in good repair. On the south side of the river is the Javanese village, where there is a bridge thrown across to the north side, on which is the house of the Resident, planted with shady trees, and railed round, and is a neat and well-furnished building.

About a mile and a half above the settlement the stream turns a saw-mill, that saws annually four or five thousand large logs of timber into planks, which are carried to Batavia.

JOANA

Is situated about three miles up a river, which is the largest and most navigable along the N. E. coast of Java, being at the mouth, and a great way up, 20 feet deep, and about 200 feet broad. The town consists of two rows of houses, built along the river on its west side. On the opposite side, upon an island formed by the river, stands the Chinese campon. The fort is a redoubt with four demi-bastions, in which are the rice warehouses, the barracks for the soldiery, and some other buildings. The house of the Resident is without the fort, on the east side; it is a grand and elegant building, consisting of two parts, opposite to each other, connected by a lofty dome full 25 feet in diameter, supported by four columns.

The emoluments of this Residency amounted annually to 16,000 rix-dollars; they proceeded from the surplus weight of rice delivered by the natives to the Company, and from the collection of timber annually furnished to the Resident at a fixed price, which costs no more than the labour, and which is very cheap here, as he has only to send the people into the woods to fell the trees, and hew them into logs. The construction of ships likewise affords considerable gain to the Resident, as both timber and labour cost him little; for a Javanese master shipwright earns no more than six dubbeltjees a day, his assistants four, and the common labourers two. There are also profits attached to the farm of the duties, which accrue nominally to the Chinese Captain, but in reality to the Resident.

GRISSEC

Is situated in latitude about 7° 10′ South, nearly opposite to the S. W. end of the Island of Madura. Here is a small fort, having barracks for the troops stationed here, and warehouses within it. There is a wooden mole which runs out opposite the fort, about 600 feet in length.

The town is small, and divided between the Javanese and Chinese. The principal street runs along the coast; it consists of four or five large houses, built of stone, inhabited by the Resident and other Europeans. The street is wide, and shaded by several rows of tall thick trees opposite the houses. At the end of, and behind the street are the campons of the natives and Chinese; also the grand square, in which are the residences of the native Chiefs. There is no water fit for drinking here, but what is fetched from two springs about 1½ mile from the town, or from Sourabaya.

SOURABAYA

Is about three leagues from Grissee, the coast between forming a large angle. The town is situated on the banks of a river, about a mile from the sea, in latitude 7° 14′ South, and longitude 112° 55′ East. Ships visiting this place require pilots. The anchorage is about a mile to the northward of the river, with the flagstaff of the fort bearing S. 2 E. and Grissee W. 20 N.

The fort is on the right bank of the river: it is small, and built of brick. It contains a small arsenal and barracks for the troops stationed here; the hospital is also on this side of the river, near which the Governor and all the officers reside. On the opposite bank are the principal Malay and Chinese campons, to which there is a communication by two large wooden bridges. There are two moles erected at the mouth of the river, with batteries to defend them. The banks are full of villages, inhabited by Malays and Chinese.

The river is navigable for ships of 100 tons burthen, and much frequented by vessels from the neighbouring ports. There are several yards for building ships and vessels; and here the Dutch used to construct those they employed in the country trade, timber being abundant, and of excellent quality. The ships destined for the Phillippine Islands and China usually touch at Sourabaya, where every refreshment, except good vegetables, is to be procured in abundance. Good native sailors are to be had here, but it must be under an engagement to bring them to Java.

MADURA.

This island, which extends about 20 leagues due East, is separated from Java by a narrow channel, called the Strait of Madura; but it is only navigated by vessels of small burthen. On the S. E. side of the island is the principal town, called Samanap, where refreshments of various kinds are to be procured. The island abounds in rice, and excellent timber for ship-building.

The Dutch invaded and subdued this island about 1747, making slaves of a great number of the inhabitants.

PASSOURWANG

Is situated on the banks of a river navigable for several leagues up the country, at the bottom of a bay on Java. Here is a neat and well-constructed fort, about a mile from which there is a fine wooden bridge across the river. The Commandant's house backs the fort on the right bank facing the bridge, and is a very extensive and commodious residence, with many offices. The boat yards are near the mouth of the river. The houses are neatly built, and the country is well cultivated. The chief produce is rice, of which large quantities are exported. There are but few Dutch here; the Javanese are numerous, and their Chief lives in considerable splendour. The coast hereabouts is very shoal, so that large ships are obliged to anchor three or four miles from the land, in latitude 7° 36′ South, the entrance of the river bearing S.W. The banks of the river are mud, and very shallow, having many offensive dead animals about them, which generally occasion an intolerable smell.

PANAROUKAN.

This town is situated upon a river, which empties itself by several mouths into the sea, about 20 miles to the westward of Cape Sandana, the N. E extreme of Java. The fort stands about three quarters of a mile from the sea; it is square, built with palisades and planks, mounting two or three small guns, and surrounded by a wide ditch full of water It has two entrances, with a good drawbridge, the principal one fronting the sea. Within is a barrack-house, the rooms of which are comfortable; here a serjeant and small guard are kept. Provisions are cheap, and the place abounds with fish and fruits.

BALEMBOUANG

Is the only place on the east coast of Java where refreshments can be procured. This was formerly a place of considerable trade, and the Dutch ships frequently took in part of their cargoes of pepper here; it has since gone to decay, and the Resident is removed to Bagnouwangie, about five leagues to the northward, on the banks of a river called Balembouang River. Here is a small mud fort, lined with turf, surrounded by a ditch full of water, over which are two drawbridges; within are three capital residences for the officers, besides a guard-house. This establishment is surrounded by a village of the same name, where numbers of Malays and Chinese reside. It is considered very unhealthy, and is the place where the convicts from Batavia are sent to work in the pepper and coffee plantations, of which there are several, likewise a small indigo manufactory.

The south coast of Java does not contain any places of trade, and being seldom visited, is but little known. There are several bays, but the greater part of the coast is inaccessible, from the heavy surf constantly beating upon it.

RISE AND PROGRESS

OF THE

COMMERCE OF THE DUTCH WITH THE EAST INDIES.

Among the nations of modern Europe, the inhabitants of the United Provinces were early distinguished for their love of trade, and their skill in nautical affairs; and the habits of industry and economy which they thereby acquired, animated with the noble spirit of independence which they inherited from their Batavian ancestors, gradually rendered them a sensible, intelligent, and enterprising people.

Soon after the establishment of the Portuguese trade to India, the Dutch resorted to Lisbon for the purchase of Indian commodities, of which they became the principal carriers to the ports of France, the Netherlands, and the Baltic. In the prosecution of this traffic, they observed the vast advantages the Portuguese derived from their direct intercourse with India, which, together with the alluring accounts they received of the riches of that country, awakened a high spirit of emulation and enterprise, and they aspired to a participation of the commerce and wealth of the East. They, however, resolved not to interfere with the right which the Portuguese had assumed of monopolizing the trade to India by way of the Cape of Good Hope, but to attempt to open a communication with Japan and China, by sailing round the north of Europe; and, elated with the hope of attaining an object so advantageous, they overlooked the failures which eminent English navigators had recently experienced in attempting the same passage, as well as the various obstacles to its discovery which the voyages of those navigators had brought to light. A squadron of four ships was accordingly equipped, and the command of it was given to William Barents,

an able pilot, and distinguished for his intrepidity and skill. He sailed from the Texel, June 5, 1594, and proceeded to the latitude of 78° North, and then, not being able to prevail upon his companions to continue any longer in those seas, returned to Holland September the 16th.

1595. Though the above voyage was unsuccessful, the probability of discovering a passage appeared so great, that another fleet, under the command of Hemskirk and Barentz, sailed June 2, 1595; but this fleet, of which there were great expectations, performed little or nothing, returning to Holland in less than five months with an account that the savages had informed them that there was a great sea to the eastward of Tartary, into which they might enter. Encouraged with this report, and a reward offered by the Government of 25,000 florins to any person who should make the discovery, the City of Amsterdam fitted out two vessels under the same commanders, who sailed on the 18th of May, 1596. These were more unfortunate than the former; one of the ships was lost on the coast of Nova Zembla, and a great part of her crew perished, and Barentz amongst the number. Hemskirk and the rest returned in October, 1597.

These failures convinced the Dutch that even if a north-east passage to India were practicable, the numerous difficulties and perils attending it, would render it of little or no utility in a commercial point of view. They therefore turned all their attention and activity towards acquiring a knowledge of the navigation round the Cape of Good Hope, in which they determined to embark. This scheme was encouraged and facilitated by Cornelius Houtman, who was employed in the trade which had been carried on between Amsterdam and Lisbon, and who had by that means the opportunity of forming an acquaintance with some of those intelligent mariners who conducted the Portuguese fleets to India. His inquisitive solicitude respecting the navigation of the Indian seas attracted the notice of the Portuguese Government, who had him arrested and confined. Upon this he applied to the merchants of Amsterdam, offering to communicate to them all the valuable facts which he had collected relative to the Indian trade, and the mode of conducting it, if they would redeem him from captivity, by advancing a certain sum of money which the Portuguese had consented to take for his ransom. This proposal was readily acceded to. Houtman was accordingly liberated; and on his arrival at Amsterdam, he furnished the merchants with such ample and detailed information regarding the East Indian commerce, that a plan for engaging in it was formed and adopted.

1596. A Company of merchants was formed for carrying on the trade; they fitted out a fleet of four ships, under the command of Houtman, which sailed from the Texel in February, 1596, and returned in August, 1597. They found the natives every where ready to trade with them. Before the return of this fleet, another set of merchants had associated for engaging in the Indian trade; upon which, to avoid animosities, they agreed to unite, and accordingly sent out a fleet of eight ships, under the command of James Van Neck. A design of the same kind was set on foot in Zealand, and ships dispatched for India. The inhabitants of Rotterdam, excited by such examples, formed a Company also, and fitted out five ships, with orders to sail to the Moluccs Islands by the Strait of Magellan.

1599. The Amsterdam Company, without staying for the return of the fleet they had sent out already, fitted out three ships more, which sailed May 4th, 1599. On the 8th of June four of the eight ships that went out first, arrived in the Texel; and after they were unloaded, were immediately sent back again. About this time a new Company of merchants at Amsterdam fitted out four vessels, which sailed in December, with four of the old Company's ships. In about two years all these ships came home with rich cargoes, which gave great encouragement to all concerned in this new branch of commerce.

1600. In this year the new Company sent out two ships, which were joined by six of the old Company's ships; these, with the former fleets, all returned in due time to their respective ports. In the

course of the foregoing voyage, the Dutch had settled factories at Bantam, Acheen, and Banda; but experienced much difficulty in obtaining cargoes, from the intrigues and animosity of the Portuguese.

1601. Upon this happy success more ships were sent out from Amsterdam, Zealand, and other parts. Among others, thirteen sailed from Amsterdam, of which four belonged to the old, and four to the new Company; these sailed from the Texel in April, 1601. This fleet was attacked by a Spanish fleet of 30 sail, in the month of May, but succeeded in beating them off. Some of the Dutch ships frequenting Acheen, had disputes with the King of that place, which were at length compromised, in which Houtman, who first conducted the Dutch to India, lost his life.

1602. While the Dutch commerce was attended with such prosperity, the affairs of the different Companies at home became involved in difficulties, of which that success was the primary cause. The desire of adventuring in the India trade which pervaded the United Provinces, and which gained strength at the completion of every voyage, at last produced so many rival Companies, each of them striving to surpass the other in diligence and activity, that the markets were glutted with Indian commodities, and the price of them consequently fell very considerably. This depreciation in the value of goods, which were procured at so great an expence, proved fatal to some of the Companies, and was severely felt by all. A temporary stagnation therefore took place in the trade; and the whole nation was filled with disappointment, agitation, and alarm. The States-General, fearful of the consequences, exhorted the various Companies to unite their funds in one general stock, which was agreed to; and on the 20th of March, 1602, the new Corporation entitled "The Dutch East India Company," was formally instituted at the Hague. The patent commenced on the same day, and was granted for 21 years. Its conditions were, that the Company should possess the complete monopoly of the trade during the term specified; and that the State, in return for this extensive privilege, should have a share in their capital, equal to 25,000 florins, and likewise a duty of 3 per cent. on all their exports, except bullion. The whole stock of the new Company consisted of 6,600,000 guilders, about £600,000 sterling, which was divided into the following shares:

Amsterdam was to have one half of the said capital, and 20 directors.			
Middleburgh	one fourth	ditto	12 ditto.
Delft	one sixteenth	ditto	7 ditto.
Rotterdam	one sixteenth	ditto	7 ditto.
Enchuysen	one sixteenth	ditto	7 ditto.
Hoorn	one sixteenth	ditto	7 ditto.

each of which places was to send out ships, and receive returns in proportion to the sums thus subscribed, and at each of them an East India chamber was fixed for the management of the trade.

The new Company commenced their operations with great alacrity and uncommon expedition. A fleet of 14 large ships sailed in June, 1602, under the command of Admiral Warwick, which afterwards separated for Acheen, Bantam, the Spice Islands, &c. The appearance of this large fleet relieved the Dutch factors settled in the different islands, from the continual alarm in which the constant aggressions of the Spaniards and Portuguese kept them. In December, 1602, another fleet, consisting of 13 sail, under Van Hagen, having a number of troops on board, left Holland for the Moluccas. On their voyage out they made an unsuccessful attempt on the Portuguese settlement of Mosambique; they however succeeded in expelling the Portuguese from Amboyna and Tidore, and opened communications with the Coasts of Coromandel, Malabar, and Ceylon.

1603. The Dutch sent a small squadron to open a communication with the Prince of Jacatra, on Java. They were kindly received, and so successful in their negotiations with that Prince, as to procure

a valuable cargo, to conclude an agreement for carrying on a regular trade, and to obtain permission to build a factory in the town of Jacatra. In the following year they obtained the like privileges at Bantam; and, with a view to prevent the English from carrying on a trade at these places, the Dutch represented them as a perfidious and piratical people, and used every exertion to raise jealousies, and foment disturbances between them and the natives.

1604. The Dutch fitted out a large expedition from the Moluccas against Malacca; but the Portuguese had made such preparations for a vigorous defence, that after an obstinate contest of five weeks, maintained with equal bravery and skill, the Dutch were obliged to raise the siege, with the loss of a third of their whole force. The Spaniards at Manilla, being aware of the defenceless state the islands under the Dutch were left in by this expedition, proceeded against Amboyna, which in three days surrendered, and they soon made a complete conquest of the other islands. The Dutch, on their return from Malacca, in about two months wrested from the Spaniards the whole of their conquests.

While the Dutch and Spaniards were thus occupied in India, a truce was agreed upon between the two nations in Europe, on the condition that Spain should not molest the Dutch commerce with independent and neutral nations in India, but that the Dutch should not be permitted to enter any of the Portuguese or Spanish ports in that country. This truce, however, was not long preserved; the Dutch had many temptations to break it. They had in the Indian seas 40 ships, from 600 to 800 tons each, equally adapted both for commerce and war. The commanders of the different squadrons therefore declared, that the States-General had not consulted the interests of their Indian settlements in the stipulations they had made with Spain; that, however beneficial the truce might be in Europe, it was prejudicial to them; and that for these reasons they were resolved to recommence the war.

At this period the Dutch are stated to have had factories at the following places, viz. Mocha, Persia, Cambay, Malabar, Ceylon, Coromandel, Golconda, Bengal, Aracan, Pegu, Acheen, Jambee, Palembang, Bantam, Cambodia, Siam, Cochin China, Tonquin, and Japan, exclusive of the entire possession of the Moluccas, and several factories taken from the Portuguese in the neighbouring islands.

1612. The Portuguese at Ceylon being at war with the King of Candy, the latter called in the assistance of the Dutch. The Portuguese were afterwards defeated, and the King concluded a treaty with the latter power, granting them the exclusive trade in cinnamon, and permission to build a fort.

The Dutch about this time sent an expedition against the Portuguese settlement on Timor, which, after a long and obstinate defence, was forced to capitulate; and a treaty of alliance was concluded with the Chief of the island, by which the Dutch obtained the grant of a considerable portion of it.

1614. The East India Company fitted out a fleet of six ships, under George Spilbergen, which sailed from the Texel on the 8th of August, passed through the Strait of Magellan, defeated the Spanish navy in the South Seas; and, after a short and prosperous navigation, arrived on the Coast of Java, having visited and supplied the Dutch settlements in the Moluccas with stores.

The Company of distant countries and that of Magellan made the following dividends:

In 1604	125 per cent.	In 1608	10 per cent.
1605	55 ditto.	1613	4½ ditto.
1607	10 ditto.	making in all	201½ per cent.

The Company, which were concerned in the equipment of the 14 ships which sailed in 1602, divided

In 1605	15 per cent.	In 1609	25 per cent.
1606	75 ditto.	1611	50 ditto.
1607	40 ditto.	1612	37 ditto.
1608	20 ditto.	1614	3 ditto.

The foregoing dividends, amounting in the whole to 265 per cent. and which balanced their account, were made by the General United East India Company, established in 1602, to whom the liquidation of the affairs of the former Companies was committed.

In this year an embassy was sent to the King of Siam, who in consequence entered into an agreement with the Dutch, whereby permission to build a factory in that country, and other important commercial privileges were obtained. A small squadron was likewise dispatched to Masulipatam, with a view of opening a trade with that part of the coast. The Rajah allowed them to erect an extensive warehouse, together with a dwelling house for a factor, in the vicinity of the town.

1618. The Dutch did not establish themselves at Surat till several years after the English. They had not any regular trade till 1616, when letters were written to the Mogul, who granted them a phirmaund in 1618, containing the following articles:—That all help and friendship shall be shewn to the Dutch, and no more shall be exacted from them for customs than is usual at Surat.—That the merchants who sell and buy their goods, shall not be suffered to be molested therein.—That the presents which they intend for the Emperor, shall be examined at the Custom House, sealed there, and sent thence to His Majesty.—That no one shall be allowed to make any claim upon the effects of the Dutch who may die, but that they shall be left untouched to the disposition of his lawful heirs.—That no one shall interfere in any disputes that may arise amongst them, but that the same shall be left to the decision of their own Chief who is put over them.—That no one of them shall be compelled to embrace the Mahomedan religion by force.—That, according to ancient custom, no duties shall be exacted upon the provisions which they may want for their ships.—That no injustice shall be done to them, under any pretence whatever; and care shall likewise be taken that none be committed on their part.

The English at this period had factories on Pulo Roon and Rosengyn, two of the Banda islands, which were attacked by the Dutch, but being fortified, they were repulsed. They, however, succeeded in capturing two of the English Company's ships, the Swan and Defence. On the arrival of this intelligence in Europe, an English fleet was sent out under Sir Thomas Dale, who, on his arrival at Bantam, found the Dutch at war with the Javanese. The King of Bantam entered into a treaty with the English, and the Castle of Jacatra was taken on the 22d of January, 1619. The surrender was made to the English and Javanese on the following conditions:—The Dutch to be sent to the Coast of Coromandel, on condition of their taking an oath not to serve against the English previous to the month of November next ensuing. The place was delivered up by the English to the King of Bantam, reserving their factory, and privileges of trade.

1619. A Dutch fleet, under the command of Commodore Coen, arrived on the 25th of March in the road of Jacatra, and landed 1200 men, who took, ravaged, and destroyed the town of Jacatra, and kept possession of the place, by right of conquest, for the Dutch East India Company, compelling the King of Bantam to make a formal acknowledgment of the supremacy of the Dutch power in the Island of Java. Having thus established his authority over the principal part of the island, Coen concluded a treaty of peace with the English; and on the 12th of August, 1619, laid the foundation of the City of Batavia, and fixed here the seat of the Supreme Government of the Dutch possessions in India, which had previously been at Amboyna, and which were held under the following regulations:

All the Company's territories, settlements, and factories were placed under the government of a supreme council, which was called the "Council of India," composed of a President and 20 Counsellors. The President was the Governor and Captain-General, and, in his executive capacity, the first magistrate of the Government. The sole administration of public affairs was thus vested in the Governor-General and Council, to whose superintendence and controul the Governors and Factors of all the subordinate

factories and residencies were subject, to whom they regularly transmitted annual accounts of their proceedings, and to whom they were accountable for their public conduct. Regular military and naval establishments were formed, of which the Governor-General was the head, and possessed the absolute direction. These extensive powers were supported by an authority, and embellished with a splendour which partook of the dignity and magnificence of regal state. But, in the exercise of his authority, the Governor-General was overlooked by an independent Council, called "The Council of Justice." In this council was vested the judicial power, together with the distinguishing prerogative, which they derived from the States-General, of arraigning the Company's Government for the commission of any act inconsistent with their allegiance to the sovereignty of their country. The Council of Justice was composed of a President and eight Counsellors, all Doctors of the Civil Law, and its jurisdiction extended over the whole of the Company's dominions. The commercial department held the next place in the Government, in point of rank as well as of importance; and the Director-General, who presided at that department, had the special management of the details of trade. The military establishment consisted of 6000 regular European troops, and a well-disciplined militia, principally composed of Malays, officered by the junior civil servants of Government. The whole of this force was commanded by a Major-General, who resided at Batavia, where the main body of the regulars was consequently stationed. Each respective settlement had its own militia; but the fortresses by which those settlements were defended, were garrisoned exclusively by detachments of the regular troops. The naval power of the Company was likewise considerable; it consisted of about 40 ships, each mounting from 16 to 30 guns. These ships, which were employed in the Company's trade, were kept in a high state of equipment, and under the command of a Commodore, who had been regularly trained in the service. Besides this fleet, there were 10 or 12 ships of a smaller description, stationed at Batavia, which were reserved exclusively for warlike operations.

The English East India Company had not any portion of territory, or any sort of dominion in India, except in the Island of Lantore, of which they had obtained a grant from the native Malay Chiefs, and in which they had begun to form a settlement, and to exercise some degree of authority. The island was governed by a commercial agent of the Company, who had under him 30 Europeans in the capacity of clerks, overseers, and warehousemen; and these, with about 250 armed Malays, constituted the only force by which it was protected. In the Islands of Amboyna, Banda, Pulo Roon, and Rosengyn the Company possessed factories, in each of which there were stationed ten agents. At Macassar, at Acheen, and at Bantam they likewise possessed factories, though most of them were inferior to those in the Moluccas. Such was the situation of the English Company in the Indian Archipelago, where the dominion and ascendency of the Dutch were now so firmly established.

When the information of the events which had occurred in India reached Europe, they became subjects of mutual complaint by the English and Dutch Companies to their respective Governments. Commissions were appointed; and, after repeated conferences, a treaty was concluded at London, July 7, 1619, between the States-General and England, which, after specifying an amnesty for all excesses committed by either party in the East Indies, and a mutual restitution of ships and property, declared the trade of the two nations in the East to be free, to the extent of their respective funds or capital which might be employed; and specified that the exertions of both Companies should be directed to reduce the duties and exactions of the native officers at the different ports—that the pepper-trade at Java should be equally divided—that the English should have a free trade at Pulicat, on paying half the expences of the garrison—that the English, at the Moluccas and Banda, should enjoy one-third of the export and import trade, and the Dutch two-thirds, and that Commissioners should be appointed to regulate the trade—that the charges of the garrisons should be paid in the same proportion—that each Company should furnish ten ships of war for common defence, but that these ships should not to be employed to bring cargoes to Europe,

but only in the carrying trade from one part of the East Indies to another—and that the whole proceedings should be under the regulation of a "Council of Defence" in the Indies, composed of four members from each Company. This treaty was to be binding for 20 years.

From this treaty many salutary consequences were expected to flow; but it appears it was wholly disregarded by the Dutch Governors in India, who, shortly after they had proclaimed it, not only violated its principles, but infringed its most positive stipulations.

An armament was equipped and sent against Lantore, which they captured; and after shipping off a considerable quantity of money and valuable merchandise, and having ransacked and pillaged even the private dwellings of the Factors, the few English who survived the assault, were stripped naked, bound with cords, publicly whipped, and afterwards loaded with chains, and dragged in savage triumph through the streets. Having thus satisfied their ferocious appetites, they proceeded to Pulo Roon, where they committed the like depredations, and perpetrated in cold blood the same inhuman cruelties.

1622. No demand of satisfaction having been made by the English, nor even a remonstrance preferred to the States-General on the subject of the barbarous outrages committed at Lantore and Pulo Roon, the Dutch proceeded to the completion of the scheme they had so long meditated, of expelling their rivals from the Spice Islands, by the perpetration of that well-known act, which is distinguished in the annals of the world for the most complicated perfidy and enormous barbarity, and which historians have justly denominated "the Massacre of Amboyna." This atrocity commenced by the Dutch Governor seizing on ten Japanese soldiers belonging to the English factory, and subjecting them to torture, to draw from them a confession that they had been parties in a conspiracy which Captain Towerson, the English agent, had formed, to seize on the Castle of Amboyna, and to expel the Dutch from the island. The unfortunate Japanese, who could not comprehend the sources of the animosity between the Europeans, sunk under their agonies, and allowed their tormenters to give any colour they chose to that fabrication, upon which they intended to inflict similar misery on Captain Towerson, and the English Factors.—These unhappy men were therefore individually exposed to the torture; and as their probity and national firmness of character induced them to refuse, amid their sufferings, the confession of a project which existed only in the commercial jealousies and avarice of their enemies, this firmness and probity were held to be evidence of guilt, which, instead of mitigating the ferocity of their oppressors, increased it, till human nature, worn out with pain, sought a momentary relief in confessing crimes which never existed; but even this extremity could not satisfy the Dutch, who availed themselves of the presumed confession which the torture alone could have forced from them, and on the 27th of February, 1623, they executed Captain Towerson, nine English Factors, nine Japanese, and one Portuguese tailor. The following day was devoted to the solemnization of a public thanksgiving for the signal delivery of the Dutch settlement from this mighty conspiracy.

The massacre of Amboyna, and the tame submission of England to that deep injury to her interests and honour, produced those consequences which the Dutch Company had so long coveted, the exclusive possession of the spice trade; the English having, by a renewal of these encroachments of the Dutch, been reduced to such a state of dependence and degradation, that they were compelled to abandon their factories one after another, and retire to Bantam, their chief remaining settlement in the Eastern Islands.

The Dutch Company's charter being near its expiration, they solicited a renewal of it, in which they experienced some opposition; many were of opinion that the exclusive privilege they enjoyed, was detrimental to the subjects of the Republic in general, and that the commerce would bring far more money into the United Provinces, if it were laid open. In answer to this assertion, the Company alleged, that it was a dangerous thing to put conjecture in balance with facts; that they had, in the space of twenty-one years, divided 450 per cent. upon their capital, which amounted to near 30,000,000 of florins, besides the immense

sums they had laid out in building and equipping ships, military and naval stores, seamen and soldiers' pay, merchandise which they exported, and other things, almost beyond the reach of calculation. Upon these allegations their request was complied with; and a new charter, dated December 22, 1622, was granted them for the further term of twenty-one years, to commence from the first day of the succeeding year.

1628. About this period the Dutch discovered the large country of Carpentaria, now called New Holland. The western part was discovered in the same year, and named De Witt's Land; but the southern coast was discovered in 1627 by Peter De Nuyts, who was afterwards sent ambassador to Japan.

1629. Batavia was besieged by the Emperor of Java with a large army. They came before the citadel on the 22d of August, 1629, and in the space of a month made several assaults; but being always repulsed, they raised the siege on the 2d of October, after losing an immense number of men.

1635. The Dutch succeeded in expelling the Portuguese from the Island of Formosa, of which they retained possession till about 1661, when they were in their turn driven out by the Chinese.

1636. The King of Candy being at war with the Portuguese, in the month of May sent ambassadors to Batavia, who declared to the Governor-General and Council, in the name of their master, that the Portuguese, in direct violation of treaties, and without any just cause whatever, had attacked and invaded the heart of his dominions, and requested their assistance against the common enemy. An alliance was concluded, and a fleet, with a considerable body of land forces, sailed from Batavia in February, 1639; they landed on Ceylon, and made themselves masters of Batecalo, Trincomalee, Negombo, and Point de Galle. The war lasted for a number of years with alternate success; but the Dutch ultimately succeeded in expelling the Portuguese entirely from the island, having captured Jaffnapatam, their last strong hold, on the 24th of June, 1658.

1644. The Company's charter drawing near a close, they did not fail to adduce to the States-General such arguments as they thought most likely to obtain them another; and as the Directors had many points to allege, such as assisting the public with money in its greatest exigencies, and supplying large quantities of saltpetre *gratis*, for making gunpowder during the war, their proposition met with attention and approbation. At the same time they were given to understand that they were not to expect a grant of their exclusive commerce for a new term, without advancing a considerable sum for the use of the Republic; which, after mature deliberation, was fixed at 1,600,000 florins, in consideration of which present, their charter was renewed for twenty-one years, to commence from the first day of the ensuing year.

The following is an account of the annual returns made from India to Holland, in the years 1614 to 1643 inclusive, specifying the number of ships, and the invoice amount of their cargoes.

Years.	Ships.	Value.
1614	2	Florins 433,526
1615	5	511,672
1616	5	566,064
1617	4	573,007
1618	8	1,305,544
1619	5	1,074,047
1620	6	913,137
1621	6	1,094,030
1622	8	1,776,792
1623	8	1,301,909
1624	6	Florins 832,835
1625	4	983,461
1626	10	1,926,019
1627	7	1,748,099
1628	7	2,050,367
1629	7	1,132,263
1630	9	2,541,215
1631	7	1,506,669
1632	7	2,099,772
1633	7	1,861,409
1634	7	Flor. 1,947,270
1635	6	2,050,036
1636	8	1,895,349
1637	8	2,673,201
1638	7	1,670,071
1639	8	3,079,413
1640	10	2,842,405
1641	10	2,906,116
1642	9	3,485,191
1643	10	3,227,882

The following is an account of the dividends made by the Dutch East India Company in the years 1610 to 1643 inclusive, distinguishing what was paid in produce, and what in bank money:

1610.....75 per cent. in mace.	1627.....12½ per cent bank money	1637...40 per cent. bank money.
50 ditto in pepper.	1629.....25 ditto, ditto.	1638...35 ditto, ditto.
7½ ditto, bank money.	1631.....17½ ditto, ditto.	1640...15 ditto, in cloves.
30 ditto in nutmegs.	1633.....32½ ditto, ditto.	25 ditto, bank money.
1620.....37½ ditto, bank money.	1635.....25 ditto, in cloves.	1641...40 ditto, in cloves.
1623.....25 ditto, in cloves.	20 ditto, bank money.	1642...50 ditto, bank money.
1625.....20 ditto, bank money.	1636.....37½ ditto, ditto.	1643...15 ditto, in cloves.

These dividends were smaller than in the early part of the trade, chiefly owing to the great expences of their establishments in various parts of India, and the competition of other European nations.

1654. The war which broke out between the two Republics in Europe in 1652, was brought to a close by the Treaty of Westminster, which was concluded on the 5th of April, 1654, in which articles were introduced expressly to redress the grievances of the English in the East Indies, and to ascertain the respective rights of the Dutch and English East India Companies. Four commissioners on each side were appointed, who met in London on August 30th, 1654, to decide on the claims of each Company for compensation for the damages which each asserted they had sustained. The English Company stated the amount of their damages, as established by a series of accounts from 1611 to 1652, at £2,695,999 15s. To counterbalance this statement, the Dutch brought forward accounts, in which they estimated their damages at an amount still greater, or £2,919,861 3s. 6d. After long deliberation, the commissioners pronounced their award: in substance, that there should be an oblivion by both parties of past injuries and losses;—that the island of Pulo Roon should be restored to the English;—that the Dutch Company should pay to the English Company the sum of £85,000 by two instalments;—and farther, that the sum of £3,615 should be paid to the heirs or executors of the sufferers at Amboyna. These sums were paid by the Dutch East India Company, conformably to this award.

1655. The Governor-General in Council at Batavia sent an embassy to China with magnificent presents. They were at first kindly received; but their project of opening a trade was defeated by the secret intrigues of the Jesuits at Pekin.

1660. The Dutch attacked Macassar on Celebes, belonging to the Portuguese, on the 7th of June; and though the native Prince assisted the Portuguese with his whole force, the Dutch obtained a complete victory, and compelled the King of Macassar to send an embassy to Batavia, and to submit to such terms as the Governor-General thought fit to prescribe. By these he was obliged to expel the Portuguese from his dominions, and to promise that he would never admit them, or any Europeans, to reside in his territories. He also granted the Dutch a considerable tract of land on the sea-coast of the island.

1663. The Dutch, under Commodore Goens, attacked the Portuguese settlements on the Coast of Malabar. They first obtained possession of Quilon; they next invested Cannanore, of which with some difficulty they became masters; they then invested Cochin, which the Portuguese were constrained to surrender. Here they received reinforcements from Batavia, and marched by land to attack Porca; but the Prince offering to become their tributary, he was not molested. The city of Cranganore fell into their hands without a blow. Thus in about a year they expelled the Portuguese from most of the places they held on the Coast of Malabar, and which they had enjoyed without interruption from the time of their first settlement in India. The Dutch prohibited the natives from trading between Cochin and Cape Comorin without their passes, or to supply the English with pepper, under the penalty of confiscation.

1664. The following is an account of the settlements belonging to the Company at this time, as described in a report presented to the States-General on the 22d of October, 1664.

Amboyna, with its subordinate islands, which supply the whole world with spices.

The Banda Islands, which produce nutmegs and mace.

Pulo Roon, ceded by treaty to the English, who have not yet taken possession of it.

Ternate, and the other Moluccas; the Spaniards having abandoned their settlements there.

Macassar and Manado, both near the southern extremity of the Island of Celebes.

In the Island of Timor, a garrison; the few remaining Portuguese on the island are poor.

In Bima, on Sumbawa, there is a little trade in rice and sapan-wood.

In Sumatra the Company possess Jambee, Palembang, and Indraghiri. They have a contract for all the pepper produced on the west coast. The factory of Acheen is given up.

Malacca, a town lately taken from the Portuguese. Tenasserim and Junkceylon are posts dependent upon the Government of Malacca.

The factory of Siam has been lately withdrawn; likewise the one at Ligore.

At Aracan the Company purchase rice and slaves.

Tonquin has been distressed by inundations, and a factory is to be established there.

From Japan the Company receive only silver and copper, the Emperor having prohibited the exportation of gold. This trade has lately been attended with the loss of several ships.

It is expected that the Emperor of China will permit the Company to have a free trade, in consideration of the services rendered, by delivering him from his formidable enemy Coxenga.

In Coromandel the Company have an important trade in piece-goods, which they purchase at Pulicat, where the Governor resides; at Negapatam, a town lately taken from the Portuguese; and at Mausulipatam with its dependent posts.

In Pegu there are posts at Ava and Sirian, but the trade has been interrupted by wars.

In Bengal the Company have factories at Hughley, Cossimbuzar, Dacca, Patna, &c. and command a great trade in silk-goods, cotton goods, saltpetre, sugar, rice, &c.

In Orixa some rice and other provisions are purchased for the supply of Ceylon.

Ceylon is one of the most valuable possessions of the Company. It produces the best cinnamon, and elephants of a superior quality. The Company have 2500 soldiers in garrison at Columbo, Point de Galle, Negombo, Manar, and Jaffnapatam.

At Tuticorin, opposite Ceylon, they have a trade in cotton goods, and a pearl fishery.

In Malabar the Company have Cochin, Cranganore, Quilon, and Cananore, all taken from the Portuguese. The Samorin of Calicut and the other Princes have contracted with the Company to sell all their pepper to them. At Porca the Company have succeeded to all the rights the Portuguese had there. The English have been warned to withdraw from this station.

The factory at Surat has the charge of the trade of Hindostan and Guzzerat, which is very considerable. There are dependent posts at Amedabad and Agra.

In Persia there is an advantageous trade, the chief seat of which is at Gombroon, with a dependent post at Ispahan. The Company have bound themselves to take 600 bales of silk every year from the King at a fixed price, which they find an unprofitable article, and therefore they endeavour to diminish the quantity.

The factories at Mocha and Bussorah were given up, but the latter has lately been resumed.

The settlement at the Cape of Good Hope is merely intended as a place of refreshment for the ships on the outward and homeward voyages, and it abundantly answers that purpose.

The Island of Mauritius was abandoned, but people have lately been sent to reoccupy it.

In Java the province of Mataran supplies a prodigious quantity of rice. There is a factory at Japara. Batavia, the capital of all the settlements belonging to the Company, becomes more populous every year. The adjacent country produces rice, sugar, fruits, &c.

Such were at this period the extensive and valuable territories occupied by the Dutch East India Company in the oriental seas.

1665. The Dutch Government in India had hitherto evaded the delivery of Pulo Roon to the English, agreeably to treaty, and it was not till the 25th of March, 1665, that the cession of the island actually took place; but it was delivered up in so desolated a state, the whole of the spice-trees having been destroyed, that this station, which had been the subject of so many negotiations and treaties in Europe, and of so many unjustifiable evasions at Batavia, was rendered completely useless: but war taking place between the two powers soon after, the Dutch repossessed the island.

The charter of the Company being near its expiration, they made application for a renewal of it, in which they met with some difficulty. The affairs of the United Provinces were at this time managed by the De Witts, who were no friends to any monopoly, and in particular had no veneration for that of the East India Company. The pensioner, John de Witt, thought that companies might be necessary when new branches of commerce were to be opened, and new establishments made; he thought the acquisition of the Moluccas necessary, and that of Batavia expedient; but as to the great power that the Company afterwards assumed, he judged it not at all beneficial to the Dutch nation. Notwithstanding these objections, the Company succeeded, on payment of a large sum of money, in obtaining a grant of their exclusive trade for twenty-one years, to be reckoned from the beginning of 1666.

The following is an account of the returns made from the East Indies to Holland, in the years 1644 to 1665 inclusive, specifying the number of ships in each year, the invoice amount of their cargoes, likewise the dividends paid to the proprietors during the same period.

Years.	Ships.	Value of Cargoes.	Dividend per Cent.
1644	7	Flor. 2,070,666	45
1645	8	2,921,806	
1646	9	2,529,610	47½
1647	10	2,151,032	
1648	12	2,073,630	25
1649	9	2,243,106	30
1650	9	1,946,417	20
1651	11	2,699,991	15
1652	11	2,813,437	25
1653	16	4,745,239	12½
1654	4	1,379,035	
1655	10	Flor. 2,467,112	27½
1656	10	2,711,914	27½
1657	10	3,028,855	
1658	10	3,003,274	40
1659	10	1,782,782	12½
1660	11	3,195,318	40
1661	9	2,133,790	25
1662	9	3,354,428	
1663	10	3,324,894	30
1664	12	2,528,824	
1665	13	3,648,492	27½

During the above period, notwithstanding the prodigious expences the Company were exposed to, and the great interruption their trade experienced in the two wars with England, when whole fleets were necessary for convoying the outward and homeward-bound ships, several of which were however taken, also the long wars maintained in Formosa and at Macassar, and the augmentation of the Company's civil list, which was greatly increased, and equal to more than the whole profits of their trade during the first term, the Company divided amongst the proprietors of their stock 422½ per cent. in 21 years.

1672. The Dutch surprised and took from the English the Island of St. Helena, but it was recaptured the following year by Captain Munden, with very little opposition.

1674. The Dutch, being at this period at war with the French, attacked their settlement of St. Thomé, near Madras, which surrendered on the 26th of August, on condition that the garrison should be transported to Europe; the place was ceded by the Dutch to the King of Golconda.

1682. A rebellion having broken out in the kingdom of Bantam on Java, the Dutch aided the Prince against his father, the reigning monarch, whom they succeeded in driving from the throne, and placing the Prince thereon. In the course of the war the Dutch made themselves masters of the fortress, and plundered the European factories, particularly that of the English, in which they found treasure and merchandise to a great amount; they also instigated the King to compel the factors of other nations to leave the place, since which period no other nation but the Dutch has had any establishment at Bantam. This expulsion was severely felt by the English, who were obliged to withdraw the factories subordinate to that of Bantam, which they had established at Siam, Tonquin, Amoy, and other places in those seas.

1693. An expedition was fitted out from Batavia against the French settlement of Pondicherry. They arrived there in the end of August, and landed 1500 regular troops, and 2000 seamen and others, formed into companies, with a large battering train, and other requisites for a siege. They made their approaches with so much vigour, that on the 8th of September the place surrendered on capitulation; by which it was stipulated that it should be given up to the Dutch East India Company, the garrison to march out with the honours of war, the Indian troops allowed to retire where they pleased, and the French to be sent to Europe. The place was restored to the French by the treaty of Ryswick, in September, 1697.

1698. The Company began to enter into treaty with the States-General for a renewal of their charter, the one of which they were possessed ending on the last day of the year 1700. The treaty was completed on the 11th of August, 1698, by which the Company's rights and privileges were extended to the close of the year 1740, upon payment of a considerable sum of money to the States-General.

The following is an account of the returns made to Holland in the years 1666 to 1697 inclusive, specifying the number of ships in each year, the value of their cargoes, and the dividends paid:

Years.	Ships.	Value of Cargoes.	Dividend per Cent.
1666	7	Flor. 1,124,180	
1667	12	3,119,060	
1668	16	3,155,682	12½
1669	19	4,026,481	12½
1670	19	5,024,150	40
1671	18	5,186,414	60
1672	15	4,023,998	15
1673	7	1,688,316	33
1674	9	1,836,015	
1675	14	3,549,518	
1676	15	4,127,656	25
1677	15	3,575,483	
1678	11	2,459,738	
1679	12	3,889,605	12½
1680	11	3,386,577	25
1681	13	5,110,897	22
1682	8	Flor. 2,987,190	33½
1683	11	4,909,309	
1684	15	5,080,391	
1685	14	4,193,729	40
1686	16	5,568,644	12
1687	16	5,630,940	20
1688	15	4,305,812	33½
1689	15	3,092,896	33½
1690	17	3,839,469	40
1691	8	2,400,104	20
1692	12	4,246,878	25
1693	15	3,336,236	20
1694	12	2,988,927	20
1695	15	5,154,468	25
1696	12	3,532,243	15
1697	19	5,410,517	15

From the foregoing statement it appears that in the thirty-three years, 1665 to 1697 inclusive, the Dutch East India Company divided amongst the proprietors 636½ per cent. on their original capital.

1717. The situation of affairs in Europe encouraged several nations to turn their attention more to commerce than in former times. The efforts made in France to revive the credit of their East India Company, and other motives, induced the East India Directors in Holland to attempt the renewal of their charter, or to obtain an additional term before the old was expired, but without success. The States-General, though they did not grant their request, published a placard in support of their privileges, forbidding any of their subjects to trade within the bounds assigned to the Company, or to be concerned in any of the new undertakings for carrying on a trade there; and afterwards, in concurrence with France and Great Britain, engaged in a warm opposition to the establishment of the Imperial Company of Ostend.

1721. On the 31st of December a discovery was made of a deep and dangerous conspiracy, the aim of which was no less than the entire subversion of the Government at Batavia, by the destruction of all the Dutch inhabitants, and of the Christians of every denomination that lived under their protection. The design was, however, defeated by the arrest of the principal conspirators, the chief of whom was Peter Eberfeldt; they were tried, condemned, and put to the most cruel and ignominious deaths. The Dutch are said to be indebted to the King of Bantam for the frustration of the plot.

The following is an account of the returns made by the Dutch from the East Indies in the years 1698 to 1719 inclusive; also the dividends made on their stock in each year during the same period.

Years.	Ships.	Value of Cargoes.	Dividend per Cent.	Years.	Ships.	Value of Cargoes.	Dividend per Cent.
1698	19	Flor. 5,372,256	30	1709	18	Flor. 5,477,439	25
1699	17	5,321,289	35	1710	21	5,732,997	25
1700	18	5,298,741	25	1711	20	5,311,869	25
1701	20	6,293,702	20	1712	21	6,111,822	15
1702	21	6,725,961	20	1713	17	4,684,643	30
1703	18	6,177,447	25	1714	21	5,260,127	33⅓
1704	21	5,382,195	25	1715	27	7,730,000	40
1705	18	4,603,357	25	1716	28	6,825,290	40
1706	17	4,719,599	25	1717	28	7,299,511	40
1707	15	4,248,531	25	1718	24	7,175,000	40
1708	18	5,219,728	25	1719	30	8,252,000	40

forming a total of 633⅓ per cent. on the original capital divided in the course of twenty-two years.

1730. The following is an account of the number of ships sent from Holland; the amount of specie they carried; the number of ships returned; the sales of their cargoes; the dividends made in the years 1720 to 1729 inclusive; likewise the prices of the East India stock from 1723 to 1729.

Years.	Ships sent out.	Specie carried out.	Ships returned.	Proceeds of Sale.	Dividend per Cent.	Price of Stock.
1720	36	Flor. 4,125,000	26	Flor. 19,597,575	40	
1721	40	6,825,000	34	14,985,073	33⅓	
1722	41	7,075,000	26	19,494,366	30	
1723	38	6,887,000	29	16,247,506	12½	631 to 654.
1724	38	7,419,000	31	20,577,447	15	603 to 654.
1725	35	7,412,500	36	19,385,412	20	614 to 660.
1726	38	7,675,000	32	21,312,626	25	658 to 663.
1727	40	8,091,994	36	18,564,987	20	560 to 658.
1728	34	5,558,100	28	20,322,402	15	655 to 612.
1729	34	4,525,003	25	18,100,117	25	628 to 679.
Average	37	6,559,359	30	18,858,784	23½	

1734. This year 22 ships arrived in Holland on account of the Dutch East India Company, from various parts of India and China. Their cargoes consisted of the under-mentioned articles, *viz.*

Spices	6,311,027 lbs.	Copper	462,500 lbs.
Sugar	2,406,428 ditto.	Candied ginger	50,486 ditto.
Saltpetre	1,807,210 ditto.	China-ware	525,223 pieces.
Coffee	3,997,759 ditto.	Cotton yarn	92,421 lbs.
Dying and other drugs	1,549,463 ditto.	Candied nutmegs	8,000 pots.
Tea	885,567 ditto.	Cubebs	10,000 lbs.
Raw silk	62,015 ditto.	Java turmeric	16,250 ditto.
Silk stuffs	21,205 pieces.	Mother o'pearl	800 ditto.
Calicoes of various sorts	209,748 ditto.	Wool	277 ditto.
Indigo	14,483 lbs.	Cowries	255,357 ditto.
Tin	354,000 ditto.	Canes	1,500 pieces.

and several small articles exclusive of pearls, rough and wrought diamonds, and other precious stones.

1740. A conspiracy of a more formidable nature than the former was discovered, of which the Chinese were stated to be the principal projectors; their plan was to extirpate the Dutch, and take possession of their property. On the 8th of October the Chinese fired the suburbs, and attacked the town, but were repulsed; whereupon a dreadful massacre took place, and the quarter of the town they occupied was burnt: the number said to have been slaughtered, amounted to 40,000, and the amount of the property seized was immense. As soon as things were a little settled in the city, the Governor-General set a price upon the heads of the ringleaders, but offered a general pardon to all who should submit and return before the 22d of November; upon which, notwithstanding all that had passed, multitudes came in, and accepted the offered terms, but it was many years before the island was restored to quiet. The Dutch Government were apprehensive that this occurrence would excite the indignation of the Emperor of China, and an ambassador was sent to apologize for the measure. They were agreeably surprised on finding that the Emperor calmly answered that "he was little solicitous for the fate of unworthy subjects, who in the pursuit of lucre had quitted their country, and abandoned the tombs of their ancestors."

1748. The Directors, as before stated, made an application in 1717 for a renewal of their charter, in which they were unsuccessful; they afterwards obtained a prolongation of one year, *viz.* from the beginning to the end of the year 1741. They remained from that period till September, 1748, without any proper renewal, when they obtained a prolongation of their privilege till 1775.

1759. In this year the Dutch invaded Bengal with a considerable force, on board four frigates and several smaller vessels, with a view of expelling the English from that province, and engrossing the whole commerce to themselves; but their armament was defeated and captured by three English Indiamen, and the troops sent from Chinsurah to co-operate, were routed by the English under Colonel Forde; whereupon the Dutch wrote to the Council of Calcutta, praying a cessation of hostilities, and proposing terms of accommodation. Commissioners were appointed, and hostilities suspended. The English Commissioners proposed two verbal articles: the first contained a demand of satisfaction for the insult offered to the English flag; and the second required reparation for all the damages sustained on that occasion; to which demands the Dutch submitted, and a treaty was concluded on the 19th of December, upon which the English returned their vessels, and released their prisoners. The Nabob of Bengal, at the entreaty of the English Governor Clive, granted them pardon, with a promise of ample protection in their commerce and privileges, on sending away their troops, and pledging themselves not to keep more than 125 European soldiers in their factories.

1760. The commerce carried on by the Dutch East India Company was very considerable, and the profits large, as will be seen from the following statement of the number of ships returned to Holland from India, the cost of their cargoes, and the proceeds thereof, in the years 1750 to 1759 inclusive:

Years.	Ships.	Invoice Cost.	Net Sale.	Years.	Ships.	Invoice Cost.	Net Sale.
1750	22	Flor. 7,372,177	Flor. 19,024,209	1755	22	Flor. 9,652,485	Flor. 19,806,077
1751	24	9,630,682	16,670,614	1756	25	8,421,419	19,890,066
1752	20	7,883,361	23,133,580	1757	26	8,935,720	14,829,367
1753	22	10,259,866	17,317,037	1758	22	6,506,717	18,934,386
1754	22	8,859,297	19,840,766	1759	28	8,437,469	18,817,328

1764. The Dutch at Ceylon were involved in a war with the King of Candy. They penetrated into the interior of the island, and got possession of the capital; but were soon compelled to evacuate it, with the loss of several hundred men cut off by the natives. These hostilities prevented the natives being supplied with salt, the Dutch being masters of the greater part of the coasts of the island. The want of this important article compelled the King to conclude a treaty with the Dutch, by which they obtained possession of some inland districts, and the remainder of the sea-coast. The possession of the territory acquired by this treaty, put into their hands the Pearl Fishery in the Gulf of Manar.

1776. In the year 1775 the Company's charter expired. Their trade for some years past had been in a declining state, compared with what it had formerly been, as will appear from the following accounts of the dividends paid, from the year 1749 to 1775 inclusive:

1746 to 1748 inclusive ..... 20 per cent.	1758 to 1765 inclusive ..... 15 per cent.
1749 to 1752 ditto ..... 25 ditto.	1766 to 1770 ditto ..... 20 ditto.
1753 to 1757 ditto ..... 20 ditto.	1771 to 1775 ditto ..... 12½ ditto.

The Company being unable to pay so large a premium for its renewal as before, the States-General, having taken all the circumstances into their consideration, consented to renew their charter for 30 years, on payment of 2,000,000 florins, and an annual sum of 360,000 florins.

1779. The following is a statement of the receipts and expenditure of all their establishments, the former comprising their territorial revenues, profits upon the country trade, &c. extracted from a report of the affairs of the Dutch Company, which was laid before the States-General:

Establishments.	Receipts.	Expenditure.	Establishments.	Receipts.	Expenditure.
Jacatra, including Batavia	1,820,327	2,384,930	Bengal	385,159	265,517
Amboyna	48,747	201,082	Coromandel	427,131	452,133
Banda	9,350	146,170	Ceylon	611,704	1,243,038
Ternate	114,997	229,406	Malabar	414,977	489,645
Macassar	63,190	163,137	Surat	283,207	—
Timor	13,619	11,712	Cape of Good Hope	195,168	505,269
Banjar Massin	—	12,091	Java's N. E. Coast	436,874	281,873
Palembang	3,922	49,677	Cheribon	35,761	12,584
Japan	106,802	96,356	Bantam	—	78,262
Malacca	162,520	113,235	Landak and Succadana	1,764	9,726
Padang	74,577	53,675			

The expenditure exceeded the revenue 1,589,722 florins, or £144,520 3s. 8d. sterling. The deficiency is stated to be supplied by drafts upon the Directors in Holland, to which are to be added

various other charges, viz. the expences of equipping the ships, the payment of wages and premiums, the salaries of the Directors, the expences of the administration at home, the dividends to the proprietors, &c. These form the general debit of the Company against the profits upon the merchandise they dispose of in Europe. These gains have been calculated at about one million sterling per annum.

1780. The Dutch having entered into an offensive and defensive treaty with America, then at war with Great Britain, the latter power declared war against Holland, and fitted out a squadron, under the command of Commodore Johnstone, to proceed against the Cape of Good Hope; but the French, under the command of Suffrein, arriving there before him, frustrated the object of the expedition. He, however, surprised five homeward bound East Indiamen in Saldanha Bay, on the 21st of July, four of which he took possession of; the fifth, the Middleburgh, the largest and richest, was burnt.

The English in the East Indies captured Negapatam in November, 1781; and in January, 1782, they obtained possession of Trincomalee: the latter was soon taken from them by the French. The Dutch East India commerce suffered severely from the British cruisers both in India and in Europe, several of their most valuable ships having been captured.

1784. Preliminaries of peace with Great Britain were signed on the 2d of September, 1783, but were not definitively concluded till the 20th of May, 1784. By the fourth article the States-General ceded Negapatam, with its dependencies, to Great Britain; but the King promised to listen afterwards to any reasonable proposal for a restoration of it, by an exchange for some other territory. By the fifth article Great Britain restored to the Dutch Trincomalee, and all other towns, forts, &c. taken from them during the war, either by the King's forces or those of the East India Company; and by the sixth article the Dutch promised not to obstruct the navigation of the British subjects in the Eastern seas.

1795. The French having overrun Holland, war commenced with Great Britain. The nature and extent of the commerce carried on between Holland and the East Indies and China, previous to its commencement, will be fully shewn in the following account of the articles imported and sold at the Dutch East India Company's sales in the years 1785 to 1791 inclusive:

ARTICLES.	1785.	1786.	1787.	1788.	1789.	1790.	1791.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Black pepper	310,515	222,325	183,495	103,275	122,820	178,060	195,225
White pepper	3,930	3,565	4,385	5,190	2,135	7,615	2,220
Coffee	563,720	606,915	337,695	205,375	160,945	226,360	419,775
Sugar	33,015	14,250	29,145	8,850	15,075	30,670	23,275
Saltpetre	35,255	58,865	55,670	20,750	34,475	40,580	16,130
Tea	392,680	230,312	480,850	170,510	505,715	370,575	325,595
Nutmegs	9,970	——	23,805	5,905	5,090	19,155	16,955
Cloves	——	6,160	166,725	104,465	383,295	58,860	211,270
Cinnamon	199,470	280,605	82,470	273,765	252,785	205,045	100,235
Mace	6,465	——	23,150	13,170	8,855	14,495	13,920
Piece-goods	100,920	198,134	159,464	127,510	46,795	118,900	15,370
Sundries	131,035	122,060	174,785	100,940	134,315	139,450	98,790
Total	1,789,715	1,747,180	1,729,810	1,147,460	1,678,810	1,445,480	1,445,725

Forming a total in the seven years, 1785 to 1791 inclusive, of £10,954,180, to which add for China silk goods, and other small articles not included in the above £63,000, which forms a total of imports, £11,017,180.

Of which the China goods amounted to £2,779,500 on an average ..... £397,072 per ann.
India goods ..... 8,237,680..... ditto..... 1,162,526 ditto.

The following is an account of the average quantities of goods imported into Holland in each year of the preceding account, with the tonnage each article occupied:

Articles.	lbs.	Tons.
Black pepper	2,994,683	1,671
White ditto	45,464	25
Nutmegs	22,459	13
Cloves	512,172	381
Mace	7,504	8
Cinnamon	345,120	380
Coffee	6,118,186	3,035
Indigo	15,639	12
Sugar	979,156	437
Saltpetre	2,175,948	971
Tea	3,537,095	3,509
Piece-goods	109,922	275
Wood	665,439	297
Silk	39,933	36
Cardamums	7,797	6
Shell-lac	3,328	2
Cowries	168,778	75
Camphire	41,650	25
Borax	4,844	2
Turmeric	87,785	49
Ketchup	3,050	1
Dragon's blood	5,362	2
Aloes	4,177	2
Benjamin	2,383	1
Gum gutta	1,013	2
Long pepper	6,400	5
Cubebs	9,170	5
Sago	14,905	8
Rhubarb	25,645	28
Cotton yarn	104,184	93
Cotton wool	1,097	4
Tin	358,223	160
Star aniseeds	5,867	3
Tamarinds	16,306	7
China-root	21,892	18
Galangal	30,509	23
Tutenague	202,757	91
Arrack	153 leagers	77
Wine	77 awms	11

Forming a total of 11,650 tons per annum.

The following is an account of the quantities of tea laden at Canton on board the Dutch East India ships, in the years 1768–9 to 1794–5 inclusive; by which it will appear that the Commutation Act, which took place in England in 1784, had not so great an effect on the Dutch China trade as it had on that of other European nations.

Years.	lbs.	Years.	lbs.	Years.	lbs.
1768–9	5,213,040	1777–8	4,695,700	1786–7	5,943,200
1769–70	5,160,094	1778–9	4,553,100	1787–8	5,794,900
1770–1	5,145,248	1779–80	4,687,800	1788–9	4,179,600
1771–2	no account.	1780–1	4,957,600	1789–90	5,106,900
1772–3	4,884,700	1781–2	none, on account of the war with England.	1790–1	1,328,500
1773–4	4,694,400	1782–3		1791–2	2,051,330
1774–5	3,731,700	1783–4		1792–3	2,938,530
1775–6	4,923,700	1784–5	5,334,000	1793–4	2,417,200
1776–7	4,856,500	1785–6	4,458,800	1794–5	4,096,800

The Dutch factory at Canton was not, like all their other settlements and places of trade in India, subordinate to the Government of Batavia, but under the management of a special Committee of Directors in Holland; yet every thing relative to it was communicated to, and transacted in concert with the Government of Batavia.

Immediately on the declaration of war between England and Holland, an expedition was sent from England against the Cape of Good Hope. They obtained possession of Simon's Bay on the 18th of August, where they detained five East Indiamen, and then proceeded against Cape Town. The

colony and castle surrendered by capitulation on the 16th of September. The quantity of ordnance, ammunition, and military stores captured, was very considerable. A fleet of homeward-bound ships at Saint Helena detained seven Dutch East Indiamen proceeding from India to Holland.

On the arrival of the intelligence of the war at the British settlements, expeditions were fitted out against the Dutch possessions on the Peninsula, Ceylon, and to the eastward, of which they obtained possession at the following periods:

Trincomalee, on Ceylon, surrendered by capitulation August 26, 1795.

Malacca on the 17th of August, where the Constantia Indiaman was taken.

Cochin, on the Malabar Coast, on the 20th of October, after some resistance.

Columbo, the capital of Ceylon, with its dependencies, by capitulation February 16, 1796.

Amboyna and its dependencies on the 16th of February, 1796.

Banda and its dependencies on the 8th of March, 1796.

These accumulated disasters put a stop to the Company's trade, and to the regular payment of dividends to the proprietors, who for several years received no payment whatever.

1796. The Dutch Government equipped a fleet of three sail of the line and five frigates, having a considerable number of troops on board, with a view of recapturing the Cape of Good Hope. They arrived in Saldanha Bay on the 6th of August, where they surrendered, without firing a gun, to the British fleet under Admiral Elphinstone, on the 16th of the same month.

1802. By the treaty of peace concluded at Amiens on the 27th of March, it was stipulated by the third article, that the British should restore to the Batavian Republic all the possessions and colonies which had been occupied, or conquered by them, during the war, with the exception of Ceylon.

By the fifth article the Batavian Republic ceded and guaranteed, in full right of sovereignty, to His Britannic Majesty, all the possessions and establishments in the Island of Ceylon which belonged before the war to the Republic of the United Provinces, or to the East India Company.

By the sixth article the Cape of Good Hope was to remain in full sovereignty to the Batavian Republic, as it was before the war. The ships of every description belonging to the different contracting powers, (Great Britain, France, and Spain) were to have the right to put in there, and to purchase such supplies as they might stand in need of, as before, without paying any other duties than those to which the ships of the Batavian Republic were subjected.

1804. On the recommencement of hostilities between Great Britain and the Batavian Republic, the former power took possession of all the places in India belonging to the latter; but it was not till the annexation of Holland to France, that any steps were taken to obtain possession of the Eastern islands, or to attempt to counteract the influence the French would obtain, if left unmolested, at the Dutch settlements to the eastward.

In October, 1809, an expedition sailed from Madras against Amboyna, which, after some resistance, surrendered, with its dependencies, on capitulation. The ordnance captured amounted to 233 pieces, mostly brass. The stores were of great value.

On the 9th of August, 1810, Banda and its dependencies surrendered; and in September the English likewise obtained possession of Ternate and Tidore.

1811. An expedition upon a large scale was fitted out from the British settlements against Batavia, accompanied by Lord Minto, the Governor General of India. The troops landed on the 4th of August, and on the 8th the city surrendered without opposition. The French and Dutch troops composing the garrison, retired into the interior to an intrenched camp, having first burnt the large store-

houses of public property. On the 25th of August the British troops attacked them, and obtained a decisive victory, the result of which was the final surrender of the Island of Java and its dependencies. The British dominion was in consequence formally established by proclamation, August 29, 1811.

By the capture of the Island of Java, long the greatest boast of the ancient Government of Holland, which France has viewed as one of the most valuable of the territories wrested from her injured allies, she is left without a spot of land to the eastward of the Cape of Good Hope, on which to place that banner, whose influence she has long but vainly endeavoured to extend, to the injury of the British prosperity in the East.

To the eastward of Java is a range of islands; between them are channels or straits, occasionally frequented in time of war by the East India Company's ships bound to China, and which obtain refreshments at several places on the islands. The principal straits are Bally, Lombock, and Alass.

BALLY STRAIT.

This strait is in latitude 8° 39 South, and longitude 114° 37 East, between the island of the same name and the east end of Java, and is five or six leagues wide. Nearly in the middle of the strait, on the Coast of Java, is Balembouang Bay, already described. Ships passing through this strait, should endeavour to keep in mid channel, with boats out ready to tow, as the tides run very rapid, with eddies near the points in the narrow part. On this account Bally Strait is now little frequented, the preference being given to those to the eastward.

LOMBOCK STRAIT

Is formed by the Island of Bally to the westward, and that of Lombock to the eastward; the south entrance is in latitude 8° 45 South, and longitude 115° 43 East, and is known by a large island, called Banditti Island, to the westward of which there is no passage. Ships under the necessity of passing through this strait seldom find anchorage, and the tides are very rapid, with strong eddies, which are a great inconvenience. There is a place called Carang Assem, on the Island of Bally, where ships in want of provisions and refreshments may obtain a few supplies. There is also a small town on Lombock, nearly opposite.

ALASS STRAIT.

This strait, which is about 44 miles to the eastward of that of Lombock, is formed by that island to the westward, and Sumbawa to the eastward. The strait extends about 16 leagues N. N. E. and S. W. and is about six miles wide in the narrowest part. The south entrance is in latitude about 8° 45 South, and longitude 116° 38 East.

This strait is considered the best and safest to the eastward of Java, having anchorage at the several towns and villages, where cattle and refreshments of all kinds may be procured in abundance, and from a people with whom you trade upon a safe and friendly footing, whose character is very opposite to the treacherous and sanguinary disposition of the other Malay tribes. The principal place visited by ships frequenting this strait is Bally Town, on the Island of Lombock, which is pleasantly situated about 15 miles within the entrance of the strait, in latitude 8° 31 South, and longitude 116° 28 East. It contains a great number of inhabitants, of whose industry every part of the surrounding country exhibits the most decisive proofs. Large proas come here from Macassar, Amboyna, and other places, for rice, and lie upon a beach within a reef, through which there is a passage for them even at low water.

Cattle may be procured here in any number for Spanish dollars, with the value of which they are well acquainted, as they carry on a considerable trade in the produce of the island to many of the Dutch settlements. Rice may be had cheap, and in plenty. Fruit, poultry, and vegetables are to be purchased for clasp knives, glass bottles, buttons, cotton handkerchiefs, iron hoops, &c.

SAPY STRAIT.

This strait is formed between the east end of the Island Sumbawa and the west side of Commodo, or Rotten Island. The southern entrance is in latitude 8° 40′ South, and longitude 119° 20′ East; and from the facility with which wood, water, and refreshments are procured, and the navigation being safe, it has frequently been preferred to the other straits east of Java. The principal place is Sapy Bay, on the Sumbawa side.

The village or town of Sapy is built on a creek in the S. W. part of the bay, about three-quarters of a mile from the sea, where beef, fowls, goats, yams, sweet potatoes, and cocoa-nuts are to be obtained from the natives, in exchange for red and blue cotton handkerchiefs, large clasp knives, empty bottles, iron hoops, and muskets. Of the value of money they seem to have but little knowledge. The water procured here is excellent, but getting it off is attended with some difficulty; the best watering place is to the southward of Rees's Bay, which is not more than 20 yards from high water mark.

On the east end of Sumbawa, in latitude 8° 15′ South, and longitude about 118° 15′ East, is Bima, where the Dutch have a small fort and garrison, from whence they receive sapan wood, which grows here in abundance, and of a superior kind. Previous to the troubles in Siam, they received their supplies from thence. The average quantity sold in Holland for the seven years, 1785 to 1791 inclusive, was 665,439 lbs. nearly 300 tons per annum. The Dutch send here piece-goods, opium, and other Indian produce.

MANGERAY STRAIT

Is formed by Commodo Island and the west end of Flores, or Mangeray; but being full of rocks and small islands, it is but little known, and ought therefore to be avoided. The northern part of this strait is in latitude 8° 20′ South, and longitude 119° 39′ East.

FLORES STRAIT

Is bounded on the western side by the eastern part of Mangeray Island, and on the east side by the Islands of Solor and Adenara, or Sabraon; it extends nearly N. N. E. and S. W. There is a burning mountain on Flores of a considerable height.

The principal place frequented by English ships passing through these straits, is Larantouca village, on Flores, where refreshments for two or three ships may be procured, such as goats, hogs, fowls, fruits of various kinds, a few buffaloes, and some turtle; and good fresh water may be procured from wells. In return for these articles the natives will receive gunpowder in small quantities, musket balls, glass bottles, wine glasses, white linen cloth, and all sorts of coarse cutlery. They collect here small quantities of wax, bezoar, and ambergris, which is sent in small proas to Timor and other places, and purchased by the Chinese traders. These islands also produce sandal wood in considerable quantities.

The inhabitants of this village generally hoist a Portuguese flag, having formerly had people of that nation amongst them; and many of them at present profess Christianity.

There are other straits to the eastward, formed by the numerous islands which are scattered about, but which are seldom visited by Europeans; but the proas and other vessels trading from Celebes and other ports to Timor, pass through them.

TIMOR.

This island extends about 80 leagues, in a direction E. N. E. and W. S. W. Its east end is in latitude 8° 26′ South, and longitude 127° 7′ East. It is divided between the Dutch and Portuguese; the chief place of the former being Coupang, on the S. W. end, in latitude about 10° 9′ South, and longitude 124° 5′ East; and that of the Portuguese Dhelly, on its northern side, in latitude 8° 33′ South, and longitude about 125° 30′ East.

COUPANG

Is situated at the bottom of a deep bay, which is an excellent road for shipping. The Dutch have a fort here close to the water side, where all the Europeans reside; without is the village where the Chinese and natives reside. To the eastward of the fort is a small fresh water river, into which a long boat can go at high water. The Dutch expelled the Portuguese from this part of the island in about 1613, when they built their fort, which is called Concordia. The Governor of Coupang has authority over Rotti, Savu, and some other islands in these seas.

The English have recently obtained possession of the Dutch districts on the island.

All Dutch money pass here the same as at Batavia, and China weights are in common use.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

A ship comes annually from Batavia, bringing the necessary articles for the Europeans, and a small quantity of piece-goods, opium, iron, steel, &c. in return for which they take slaves, who are of a pliant disposition, some sandal-wood, wax, and gold-dust.

DHELLY.

This harbour lies to the southward of an island called Cambi, and may be easily known by bringing the peak on that island to bear north: you are then off the entrance of the coral reefs which secure the harbour. You are obliged to take a pilot, who always comes off on a signal being made, and carries you in to anchor, with the flagstaff bearing S. 59° E. The town is large and well-inhabited, and a large trade is carried on with Macao by the Portuguese and Chinese, of whom numbers are resident here.

Spanish dollars are in current use, likewise Portugal coins; and goods are bought and sold by the pecul.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS

Are piece-goods and many other articles from India; and from China, large quantities of China-ware, coarse nankeens, brass and iron utensils, &c. which are again sent off in Malay proas to other islands.

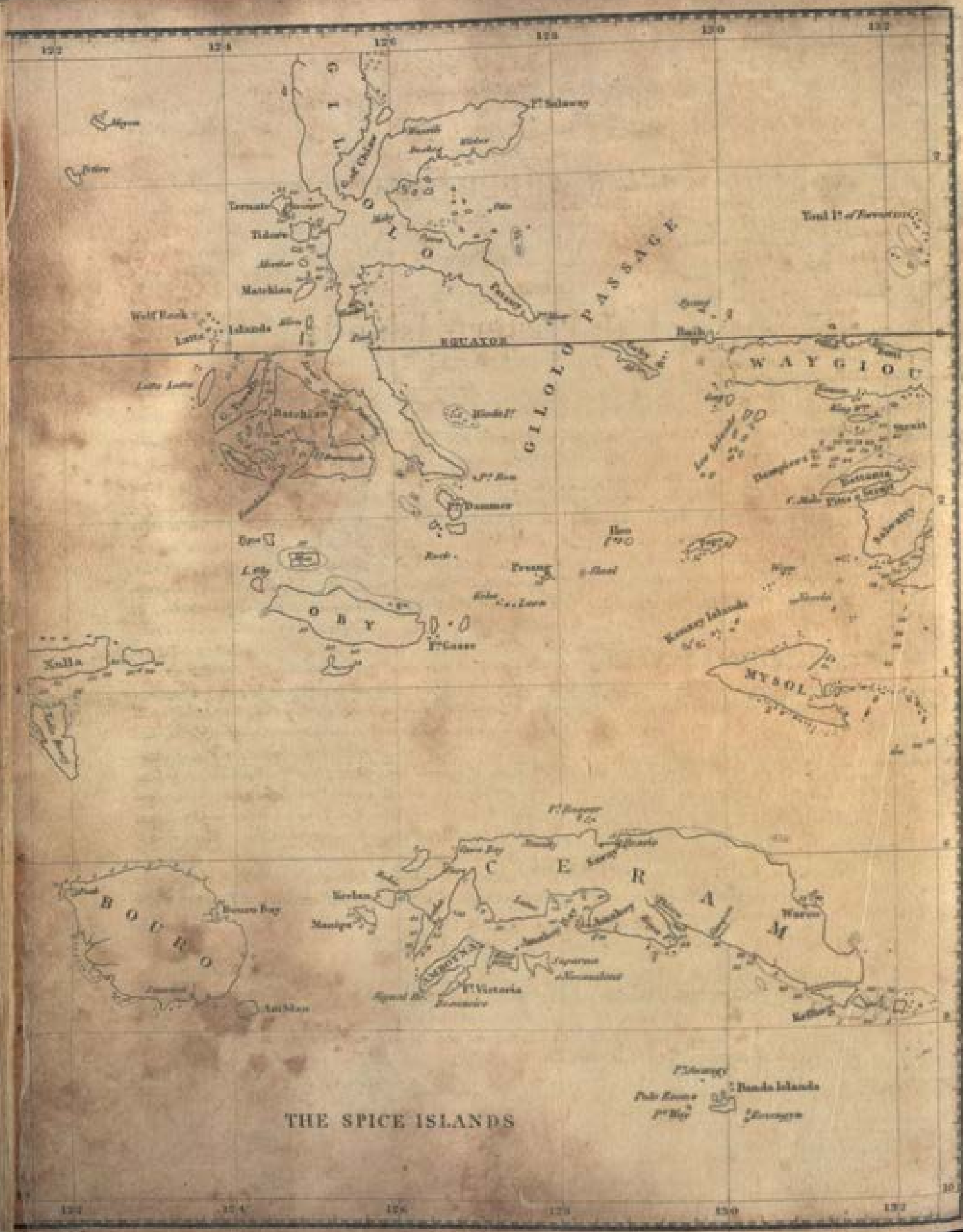
The following articles are produced on the island, brought from the neighbouring ones; they are suitable to the Chinese market, and the common prices are,

Sandal-wood ..1st sort ..40 to 50 dollars per pecul.	Birds' nests ..1st sort ..15 to 18 dollars per catty.
Ditto .....2d ditto..30 to 35 ditto	Ditto .....2d ditto..10 to 12 ditto.
Ditto .....3d ditto..15 to 20 ditto	Ditto .....3d ditto.. 5 to 7 ditto.
Beech de mer .....20 to 25 ditto	Wax .....22 to 25 dollars per pecul.
Gold-dust .....in small quantities.	Spices are sometimes to be bought here.

This island used formerly to produce immense quantities of sandal-wood; but of late years it has been much diminished from want of care and attention: it is not so much esteemed by the Chinese as that from the Coast of Malabar.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

All kinds of provisions and refreshments are in abundance, both in the Dutch and Portuguese districts; sheep from ½ to 1 dollar each; other articles in proportion. The sea abounds with fish of various kinds, and many curious and valuable shells are met with here.



THE SPICE ISLANDS

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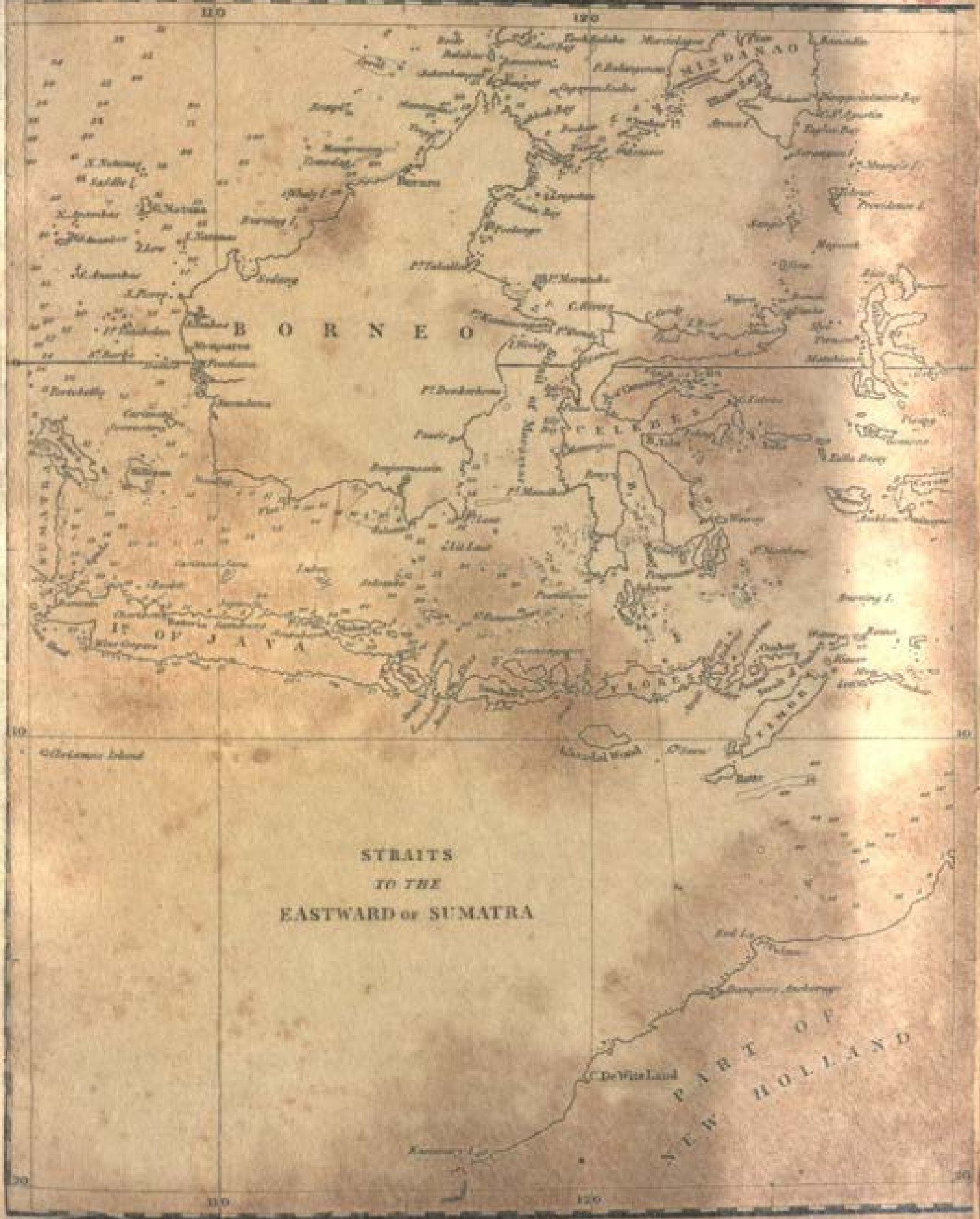


STRAITS

TO THE

EASTWARD or SUMATRA

CHAPTER XXVI.

The Eastern Islands.

Banda Islands; their Number—Banda Neira; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports—Bengal Piece-goods suitable to the Market—Exports—Nutmegs—Oil of Nutmegs—Mace—Lantore—Gonong Apee Palo Way—Palo Ruon—Rosengyn—Palo Pisang—Clove Islands; their Number—Amboyna; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Bengal Goods suitable to the Market—European Articles—Exports—Custom-house Regulations—Rates of Duty on Imports and Exports—Provisions and Refreshments—Haraucka—Saparoua—Nousa Laut—Cloves—Oil of Cloves—Boaro—Provisions and Refreshments—Ceram Mysol—New Guinea—Birds of Paradise—Gilolo—Imports and Exports—Ternate; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Duties—Provisions and Refreshments—Tidore; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Provisions and Refreshments—Celebes; its Extent—Macassar; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Duties—Provisions and Refreshments—Bontham—Bodecomba—Saleyer—Buggres Bay—Bouton—Gonong Tello—Imports and Exports—Provisions and Refreshments—Kemar—Manado—Siao—Sangir—Borneo; its Extent—Banjar Massin; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Provisions and Refreshments—Succadana—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Duties and Presents—Pontiana—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Momparva—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Sambass—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Borneo Town; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Balembangan—Bangay—Passier—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Provisions and Refreshments—Cagayan Sooloo—Sooloo; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports—Exports—Provisions and Refreshments—Basselan—Philippine Islands—Magindanao; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Samboangan—Luconia—Manilla; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Commerce with the British Settlements in India—Madras Piece-goods suitable to the Manilla and Acapulco Markets—Commerce with China—Commerce with South America—Rise and Progress of the Commerce of Spain with the East Indies.

THE Eastern Seas contain an immense number of islands, many of which are large and inhabited, and carry on a considerable trade with each other; but the greater part are uninhabited, and imperfectly known. The principal islands frequented by Europeans are, the various Spice Islands, Celebes, Borneo, the Sooloo Archipelago, and the Philippines.

BANDA ISLANDS.

This group consists of ten islands: their names are Banda Neira, Gonong Apee, Banda Lantoir, Pulo Ay, or Way; Pulo Rondo, or Pulo Roon; Rosengyn, Pulo Pisang, Craka, Capella, and Sonangy. The harbour is formed by Great Banda on the south side, Gonong Apee, and Banda Neira on the North, with Pulo Pisang and Capella on the western entrance. The anchorage, in latitude 4° 31′ South, and longitude 130° East, is at the foot of Gonong Apee, or the Burning Mountain, which smokes almost continually, and from which proceed frequent earthquakes, whose shocks are sometimes repeated three or four times in a day. You moor directly off the wharf on Banda Neira, at about half a mile distance.

BANDA NEIRA.

Is the seat of Government, and is subordinate to Amboyna. The principal fortification, called Fort Nassau, is situated on the south side of the island; it is a small square fort, having a wet ditch, with a horn-work towards the sea. In this fort the troops are quartered, and the public granaries are kept; but the storehouses for the nutmegs and mace are on the outside of the fort, as well as the Government-house. Above Fort Nassau, on an eminence, stands the Castle of Belgica, an old pentagon, with round towers at the angles, and a surrounding wall with small bastions, but it has no ditch; it is said to have been built by the Portuguese. The next fortification of any consequence is situated upon Banda Lantoir, and is called Fort Hollandia; it commands the western entrance into the harbour of Lantoir, but the works are very slight, and quite defenceless towards the land. Besides the above forts, there are a number of redoubts and military posts all round these islands, for the purpose of preventing smuggling, and of protecting the plantations and villages against the pirates from New Guinea, who frequently land, and carry off the inhabitants, and whatever else they can take by surprise, but are seldom hardy enough to attack where resistance may be expected.

The Banda Islands were discovered by the Portuguese in 1511, and taken possession of. About 1603 the Dutch expelled them. In 1608 the English obtained permission of the King to build a factory-house, which they did on Pulo Way. This the Dutch pulled down when the ship which brought the factors had returned to England. The natives of Banda, notwithstanding the numerous obstructions of the Dutch, assisted the English in forming a settlement again, and in a short time after made a formal resignation of their island to them, and the natives of Lantore did the same. In 1620 Pulo Roon and Pulo Way were also added to the British dominions. These cessions were confirmed by treaty between the English and the Dutch; notwithstanding which, at the very conclusion of the treaty, they determined on the expulsion of the former. They attacked with a strong force the two latter islands, seized the factories, magazines, and shipping, and after stripping the factors naked, first whipped, and then loaded them with irons. Some idea may be formed of the trade, then in its infancy, by the quantity of spices seized here, being 23,000 lbs. of mace, and 150,000 lbs. of nutmegs. Cromwell in 1654 compelled the Dutch to restore the Island of Pulo Roon, and to make satisfaction for the massacre at Amboyna. As to Pulo Roon, it was kept but a short time, being taken in 1664; from that period till the capture of these islands by the English in 1796, the Dutch remained in undisturbed possession. They were restored to them at the peace of Amiens in 1803, but have been again captured, and are still held by the English.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Coins.—Accounts are kept in pennings, stivers, and rix-dollars: 16 pennings make 1 stiver; 6 stivers 1 schilling; 8 schillings 1 rix-dollar. Spanish dollars pass current. 125 Rix per 100 Spanish dollars.

Weights.—The catty weighs 5¼ Dutch lbs. A bahar is 100 catties, or 610 lbs. avoirdupois.

IMPORTS.

The following is a list of Bengal piece-goods calculated for the Banda market, with the prices they cost at Calcutta, and what they sold for at Banda, when the island was first captured by the English:

	Rupees. per Corge.	Spanish Dollars.		Rupees. per Corge.	Spanish Dollars.
Cossas.....Sannah.....cost	90	sold for 95 to 100	Ginghums, fine..... cost	37	sold for 35 to 40
Ditto .....Tandah	90	90 to 100	Ditto, coarse	19	20 to 25
Ditto .....Ditto, gold head	93	90 to 100	Mamoodies, gold head	85	75 to 80
Ditto .....Blue Foolpore ..	85	80 to 88	Ditto, Sannah	90	90 to 100
Curwars, red	28	45 to 50	Salem	52	50 to 55
Chintz, Patna	16	16 to 20	Ditto, blue	72	65 to 70
Baftas, blue.....	58	55 to 60	Sannoes....Mow	39	45 to 50
Ditto, Illehabad ditto.....	75	80 to 90	Ditto .....Illehabad	120	95 to 105
Dimities, Tandah	16	14 to 15	Ditto .....Jullolpore	120	100 to 120
Gurrahs, Beerbhoom	68	50 to 60	Ditto .....Mombareck	16	12 to 14
Ditto, blue	85	85 to 100	Soosies ....Radnagore	44	35 to 40
Ditto, white	76	60 to 70	Taffaties ...Cossimbuzar	80	65 to 70

and many other articles brought prices equally as good. But few European goods are required, chiefly for the consumption of the residents, the natives being very poor, and unable to purchase.

	Rupees.	Spanish Dollars.		Rupees.	Spanish Dollars.
Brown cotton stockings, cost	14	sold for 12 to 14	Madeira wine ..... cost	12½	sold for 15
Danish canvas, in bolts	17	16 to 17	Claret	7½	10
Bengal rum	1	¼ to 1	Butter	10	20
Moogy rice	1	3½ to 4	Wheat.....	1	3 to 4
Patcherry ditto	1½	3½ to 4	Doll	1½	3 to 3½

Large quantities of provisions are annually sent to the Banda Islands. There is also sent a supply of various kinds of merchandise, which are sold by auction either quarterly, or at such times as the Governor knows the inhabitants are best able to pay for them. The Burghers and Chinese merchants settled here not only buy up all the goods which are sold on the Company's account, but also those which are imported by individuals; for, besides their own consumption, the Chinese merchants export the above articles to the Aroo Islands, New Guinea, and other islands; between all of which, and the Banda Islands, there is a constant traffic carried on. In return, they receive sago, salted deer, tortoise-shell, and a few other articles of produce.

EXPORTS.

Nutmegs and mace are the only articles of commerce here, the monopoly of which is in the hands of the Company. Sometimes a quantity may be purchased underhand; but as it is attended with considerable risk both to the buyer and seller, this mode is seldom resorted to. In the year 1778 a violent hurricane did considerable damage to the nutmeg plantations. Previous to that period the annual produce was said to be upwards of 500,000 lbs. The prices formerly paid by the Dutch were, for mace, 8½ stivers, and for sound nutmegs 1 stiver; for those worm-eaten, half as much, and for the dust of mace 4½ stivers; but in consequence of the devastation committed by the hurricane, the prices were raised to 10 stivers for the mace, and 3½ for the nutmegs.

NUTMEGS are the produce of a tree, a native of several of the islands to the eastward, but which has in a great measure been exfirpated from them all, except that of Banda. The tree is handsome and spreading, the bark smooth, and of a brownish grey colour; the leaves are elliptical, pointed, obliquely nerved, on the upper side of a brightish green, on the under whitish, and stand alternately upon foot stalks; they afford a most grateful aromatic scent when bruised. It does not bear fruit till its eighth or ninth year. When it begins to produce fruit, little yellowish buds make their appearance, out of which small white flowers are blown, hanging two or three together upon slender pedancles; in the centre of the flower is an oblong reddish knob, from which the fruit is produced, though no more than one blossom out of three commonly ripens to a nutmeg. The fruit is eight or nine months arriving at maturity; but blossoms and ripe fruit are found at the same time upon the same tree, and the nutmegs are generally gathered three times in a year. The fruit appears like a small peach, both in shape and colour, only it is pointed towards the stalk when it is ripe; the outer coat, which is almost half an inch thick, opens, and shews the nutmeg in its black and shining shell, encircled by a net-work of scarlet mace; the outer coat is generally whitish, a little hard, and is very good preserved in sugar, or stewed. You then come to the mace, which is of a fine bright red colour, and under it a black shell, about as thick as that of a filbert, but very hard; it is opened by being first dried successively in five different drying places, made of split bamboos, upon which the nutmegs are laid, and placed over a slow fire, in each of which drying places they remain a week, till the nutmegs are heard to shake within the shell, which is then easily broken. The nutmegs are then sorted, and delivered; each sort is then separately put into baskets, and soaked three times in tubs of sea water and lime; they are then put into distinct closets, where they are left for six weeks to sweat: this is done that the lime, by closing the pores of the nuts, may prevent their strength from evaporating, and likewise because such a prepared nutmeg is not fit for propagation. The nutmeg tree is distinguished into three sorts: male, or barren nutmeg; royal nutmeg, a female producing long nuts; and the queen nutmeg, yielding the round nut. The only difference between the royal and queen nutmeg is in the fruit; that of the royal is thicker, longer, and more pointed: the green shell is thicker, and is longer ripening; the green shell, after opening, preserves its freshness eight or nine days; the mace is more substantial, and three times as long as that of the queen nutmeg, and its stripes or thongs, of which there are from fifteen to seventeen principal ones, are of a livelier red; they are also broader, longer, and thicker, and not only embrace the nut through its whole length, but pass it, and cross under it, as if to hinder it from falling. The royal nutmeg is generally from fifteen to sixteen lines long, and thick in proportion; it remains on the tree a long time after the opening of the green shell, and gives birth to an insect in the shell that feeds upon it. The queen nutmeg produces much smaller nuts, only nine or ten lines long, not so thick by a third, and well marked by a longitudinal groove on one side: they are round, and the green shell is not so thick; the mace, which is composed of nine or ten principal stripes, grows only half down the nut, leaving it at liberty to escape, and plant itself. By thus detaching itself, the nut prevents the insect from destroying it: the green shell also, changing at the end of two or three days, soon falls, and separates from the nut.

Nutmegs should be chosen large, round, heavy and firm, of a lightish grey colour on the outside, and the inside beautifully marbled, of a strong fragrant smell, warm aromatic taste, and a fat, oily body. They are subject to be worm-eaten, unless properly prepared. Particular care should be taken that the worm holes are not filled up: the best manner of packing them is in dry chunam. The oblong kind, and the smaller ones should be rejected.

The real quantity of nutmegs produced has never been exactly known. The largest quantity sold by the Dutch East India Company at one time, was 280,694 lbs. in the year 1737; in 1756 there were sold 241,427 lbs. and in 1778, 264,189 lbs. The average has been stated at 250,000 lbs. annually sold in Europe, exclusive of about 100,000lbs. disposed of in the Indies; but it appears that in the seven years previous to the commencement of the war in Europe, the average quantity of nutmegs sold in Holland was only 22,459 lbs.

and of mace during the same period, 7,994 lbs. When Banda was taken by the English, the quantity of spices in the warehouses was 84,777 lbs. of nutmegs, and 19,587 lbs. of mace.

The following is an account of the quantities of nutmegs imported and sold by the East India Company, in the years 1803, 1804, and 1805, during the time the islands were in our possession:

	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.	
1803	54,790 lbs.	£26,581	49,304 lbs.	£19,652	104,094 lbs.	£46,233
1804	67,637	26,814	50,299	27,919	117,936	54,733
1805	35,851	33,742	none	——	35,851	33,742

The quantity retained for home consumption, in the years 1804 to 1809 inclusive, was 234,427 lbs. on an average 39,071 lbs. per annum, and the revenue therefrom £7,879.

15 cwt. of nutmegs are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is 3s. 6d. per lb. and the temporary or war duty 1s. 2d. making in the whole 4s. 8d. per lb.

Nutmegs imported in packages of less than 336 lbs. are liable to seizure.

OIL OF NUTMEGS

Is an expressed oil, prepared from the imperfect nutmegs, and such as are unfit for the European market: there are three sorts of it, commonly called oil of mace, but it is expressed from nutmegs. The best is brought in stone jars; it is softish, of a yellowish colour, an agreeable fragrant smell, greatly resembling that of the nutmeg, though it is not of the colour. This is denominated Banda soap, and should be chosen free from impurities, and of a pleasant smell and good colour. The next comes from Holland, in solid masses, generally flat, and of a square figure; it is paler coloured, weaker in its smell, and inferior in its quality to that of India. The last is the worst, and seems to be a composition of suet, or some such matter, flavoured with a little of the genuine oil of nutmegs.

The permanent duty on oil of nutmegs is 1s. 3d. and the temporary or war duty 5d. making in the whole 1s. 8d. per ounce.

MACE.

This spice is a thin flat membraneous substance enveloping the nutmeg; of a lively reddish yellow, saffron-like colour, of a pleasant aromatic smell, and a warm, bitterish, pungent taste. Mace should be chosen fresh, tough, oleaginous, of an extremely fragrant smell, of a bright reddish yellow, the brighter the better: the smaller pieces are esteemed the best. The state it is in when packed, should be particularly attended to; if it be too dry, it will be broken, and lose much of its fragrance; if too moist, it is subject to decay, and breed worms. The best mode of packing is in bales, pressed down close and firm, which preserves its fragrance and consistence. If imported in packages of less than 300 lbs. net, it is liable to seizure.

A production is met with on the Coast of Malabar so like mace, that at first sight it is not easy to be distinguished; it differs, however, in form from real mace, which appears of a leafy texture, while this is in thinner filaments: the colour is exactly alike, but this has not the least flavour of spiciness, and when chewed, has a kind of resiny taste.

The home consumption of mace has been much diminished since the first establishment of the East India Company. In 1615 it was stated to be 15,000 lbs. per annum. The whole quantity sold by the Company in 1803–4, when the islands were in our possession, was only 24,234 lbs. and the sale value £53,356. The quantity retained for home consumption, in the years 1804 to 1809 inclusive, was 5400 lbs. per annum.

8 cwt. of mace are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is 5s. 9d. per lb. and the temporary or war duty 1s. 11d. making in the whole 7s. 8d. per lb.

Lantore, or Great Banda, is to the northward of Banda Neira; it has a considerable fort, which commands the harbour of Lantore, and is called Fort Hollandia. The situation of this fort, at first view, appears preferable to Banda Neira for the residence of Government, not only on account of its being the strongest and the most commanding situation, but from this island being the largest as well as the richest in respect to the produce of spices. Its unhealthiness, however, proves a sufficient objection; and numbers of houses, now falling to decay, shew that the experiment has been tried, and found not to answer; moreover the water is said to be very bad, and the smoke which descends from the volcano on Gonong Apee, is represented as being particularly noxious.

Gonong Apee is likewise to the northward of Banda Neira; it derives its name from a large volcano, which constantly emits smoke, and sometimes cinders and stones. On the south side of the island are two forts, originally intended to defend the west channel of Lantore harbour: but owing to the eruption of the volcano in 1778, at the period of the dreadful hurricane before alluded to, the lava flowed down in such quantities as to form a considerable promontory between these batteries and the channel they were intended to defend, so that they are now in a great degree useless.

Pulo Way is about nine miles to the westward of Gonong Apee; here is a strong fort. It is esteemed the most healthy of the group, and produces nutmegs in abundance. Both the nutmegs and mace grown on this island, are said to be superior to those from the other islands.

Pulo Rondo, or Pulo Roon, is about four miles further, in somewhat a more northerly direction. On this island the English had a factory, but were expelled from it by the Dutch about the period the massacre at Amboyna took place. The Dutch have not inhabited it; it is therefore become a wilderness.

Rosengyn is about seven miles to the S. E. of Lantore; it produces nutmegs, mace, and some yams, and feeds a few cattle. The convicts of Amboyna used to be kept on this island, and were compelled to cultivate the land for the use of the Supreme Government.

Pulo Pisang is about two miles N. E. from Banda Neira, and yields some fine fruits as well as nutmegs and mace. The other three islands are uninhabited, being little more than barren rocks.

AMBOYNA

Is the largest of the islands denominated the Clove Islands. It is divided into two parts, a greater and a less peninsula; the largest is called Hitoo, and is about twelve leagues long, and two and a half broad; the other, called Leytimoor, is about five leagues long, and one and a half broad. This is the southernmost part of the island, on which stand the fort and town. The islands subordinate to Amboyna, on which are forts and troops, are ten in number. Ceram, which is equal in size to all the rest; Ceram Laut, Bouro, Amblaw, Manipa, Kelang, Boroa, Harackau, Saparoua, and Noossa Laut; but it is in Amboyna, and the three last islands only, that cloves are now cultivated.

Fort Victoria, the capital of the island, is in latitude 3° 42 South, and longitude 128° 11 East. The bay is very deep, and formed at its entrance by Allang Point on its west side, and Noessaniva Point to the eastward. The best anchorage is abreast the town, and rather above the wharf, in from 20 to 35 fathoms; moor with hawsers to the anchors which are placed at convenient distances on the shore for that purpose: the bank being very steep, ships are frequently driven off by neglecting this precaution.

The fort is situated on the right hand side of the harbour; it is newly built. The old one was so much damaged by an earthquake in 1755, that the Dutch thought it more eligible to build a new, than to repair the old one. The shape of the fort is irregular: on the land side it has three entire, and one demi-

bastion, which with their curtains form part of a regular heptagon; on the water-side there are two bastions, in the curtain between which stands the watergate, in the same manner as the landgate opens between the two opposite bastions on the land-side. The curtain which runs north from the easternmost land bastion, is met by a similar one coming from the easternmost sea-bastion, making an obtuse angle of upwards of 90°, so that the line of defence of the face of the easternmost land-bastion, runs exactly upon this angle; and the flanks of these bastions are therefore without defence, which was a great fault in the first construction of the fort. From the demi-bastion on the west side a battery runs northward, and being met by another coming from the westernmost sea-bastion, they form together an inverted obtuse angle. The sea-bastions are carried up somewhat higher, and are rather larger than the others; they are covered with bonnets in the middle of their faces, in order to be better provided against an enfilade. A horn-work extends before these bastions, and covers the curtain between them; its projecting angles command the shore both above and below the castle, by which a landing any where near it is rendered very difficult.

All these works are built of bricks. The whole is encircled by a wet ditch, and is the best fortification belonging to the Dutch in India. It is not favourably situated, being commanded by two ranges of hills about 700 to 1200 yards distance. There are several smaller forts and batteries on the island, but of no farther consequence than to keep the natives in awe.

The town of Amboyna is extremely clean, and both neatly and regularly built; the streets run at right angles, and the houses, on account of the frequency of earthquakes, are seldom above one story high. From the covert way of the fort to the town there is one esplanade of nearly 250 yards, terminated by a range of handsome dwelling-houses, with a double row of nutmeg-trees in front of them; in these houses the principal inhabitants reside. There are two well-built churches in the town, established by the Dutch Government, one for the Europeans, the other for the Malay Christians. All the other public buildings are in the fort, except the Stadthouse, which fronts the esplanade, and is a neat building of two stories. Just above the town is a garden beautifully laid out, much resembling the Company's garden at Cape Town; near it is a menagerie, in which are kept, among others, some beautiful speckled deer. The houses are generally built of wood, but are commodious; most of them have small gardens, or large square yards behind them, in which there is commonly a well of good water.

The population of Amboyna and its dependencies is very correctly ascertained. At the period it was taken possession of, it contained upwards of 45,000 persons, of whom not 200 were Europeans: about 18,000 are Protestant Christians, and the remainder Mahometans, except a few Chinese.

Amboyna was discovered by the Portuguese about 1511. In 1564 they obtained possession of the island, which they retained till about 1607, when the Dutch made themselves masters of it and the neighbouring islands. At this time the English had a factory here, and were involved in frequent disputes with the Dutch. In 1619 a treaty was concluded between the two nations, which stipulated that the Moluccas, Amboyna, and the Banda Islands should be common to both; that the English should have one-third of the produce, and the Dutch the remainder at a fixed price; and that each should contribute to the defence of the islands in proportion to the benefit received. The conduct of the Dutch towards the English soon after the treaty took place was so tyrannical and oppressive, that in 1622 orders were sent from England to withdraw the factory from Amboyna, and return to Batavia. It was at this period that the Dutch Government at Batavia projected those proceedings which will ever remain in the memory of the English nation, and which is justly denominated "the Massacre of Amboyna." On receiving positive accounts of the transaction in England, the Company made application to His Majesty to interpose his authority with the States-General, that redress might be obtained, and that the persons who had been the guilty instruments in this disgraceful transaction, might be punished. A committee was appointed to take the business into consideration, who advised the King to adopt strong measures for obtaining from the Dutch

such a compensation as should be consistent with his justice and honour, and to direct a fleet to be sent out to seize the Dutch homeward and outward-bound East India ships. In consequence of this, an immediate order in council was issued to seize all Dutch East India ships, and to detain them till reparation should be made. This measure brought a general, though not satisfactory answer from the Dutch. No further steps were then taken, and the death of King James, which happened early in 1625, put an end to the business. The state of the public mind was such, that the Dutch merchants resident in London applied to the Privy Council for protection from the dangers to which they were exposed from the numerous publications which were disseminated, explaining the cruelties the English had experienced in the East Indies, more particularly at Amboyna. They represented that a picture had been drawn of the Massacre of Amboyna, which was calculated to inflame the public mind, and bring on them its vengeance. This picture the East India Company acknowledged to the Privy Council was painted by their order, to be preserved in their house as a perpetual memorial of Dutch cruelty and treachery.

From that period to 1796, the Dutch remained in undisturbed possession of the island; it was then taken by the British, under the command of Admiral Rainier, but surrendered at the peace. In 1810 it was again taken, and remains in the hands of the English.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Coins.—Accounts are kept in rix-dollars. All kinds of coins pass here; but those most current are Spanish dollars, rupees, schillings, dubbletjees, and doits, thus divided:

4 doits	make	1 stiver.
4 stivers		1 dubbletjee.
6 stivers		1 schilling.

The following are the rates at which the under-mentioned foreign coins pass current.

New duccatoon	80 stivers.	Rix-dollars	48 stivers.
Old duccatoon	78 ditto.	Rupees	30 ditto.
Spanish dollar	64 ditto.	Star pagoda	99 ditto.
German crown	60 ditto.	Gold mohur	480 ditto.

The usual rates of exchange in turning one species of coin into another, are thus calculated:

100 Spanish Dollars.	Rix-dollars	133	6	4	100 German Crowns.	Spanish dollars	93	19	2
	New duccatoons	80	0	0		Rix-dollars	125	0	0
	German crowns	106	16	0		New duccatoons	75	0	0
	Rupees	213	4	0		Rupees	200	0	0
	Star pagodas	64	21	53		Star pagodas	60	20	25
	£ sterling	26	13	4		£ sterling	25	0	0
100 Rix Dollars.	Spanish dollars	75	0	0	100 Rupees.	Spanish dollars	46	22	4
	New duccatoons	60	0	0		Rix-dollars	62	9	6
	German crowns	80	0	0		New duccatoons	37	16	0
	Rupees	160	0	0		German crowns	50	0	0
	Star pagodas	48	16	20		Star pagodas	30	10	2
	£ sterling	20	0	0		£ sterling	12	10	0

100 new Duccatoons.				
Spanish dollars	125	0	0
Rix-dollars	166	12	8
German crowns	133	8	0
Rupees	266	8	0
Pagodas	80	27	7
£ sterling	33	6	8

100 Pagodas.			
Spanish dollars	153	0	0
Rix-dollars	206	12	6
New duccatoons	124	0	0
German crowns	165	8	0
Rupees	330	8	0
£ sterling	40	0	0

WEIGHTS.—The Dutch and Chinese weights are in common use; but while the island was in the English possession, goods were in general sold by avoirdupois weight.

IMPORTS.

The following are the kinds of Bengal piece-goods suitable to this market, with their dimensions and prices; extracted from an order received while the island was in the possession of the English.

	Rupees.		Rupees.
Gurrahs beerbhoom	36 by 2¼ at 68 per corge.	Blue Tanda cossas	40 by 2 at 90 per corge.
Red curtains	14 by 13¼ at 28 ditto.	Ditto tickery	28 by 2 at 48 ditto.
Mamoodies, gold head	40 by 2 at 4½ each.	Ditto Sallem	36 by 2 at 72 ditto.
Blue gurrahs	36 by 2¼ at 85 per corge.	Ditto baftas	24 by 2 at 58 ditto.
White gurrahs	36 by 2¼ at 76 ditto.	Patna blue cloth	12 by 2 at 22 ditto.
Tanda cossas, gold head	40 by 2 at 93 ditto.	Blue Foolpore cossas	40 by 2¼ at 85 ditto.
Patna chintz	8 by 15 at 16 ditto.	Mombareek sannoes	per piece 16
Mow sannoes	24 by 1¼ at 39 ditto.	Tanda dimities	ditto 16
Illehabad sannoes	42 by 2¼ at 120 ditto.	Palempores	5 by 4 at 65 per corge.
Sallem	36 by 2 at 52 ditto.	Fine ginghams	15 by 1¼ at 37 ditto.
Sannah cossas	40 by 2 at 90 ditto.	Coarse ditto	14 by 13¼ at 19 ditto.
Sannah mamoodies	40 by 13¼ at 90 ditto.	Patna chintz	8 by 2 at 22 ditto.
Jullolpore sannoes	40 by 2¼ at 120 ditto.	Radnagore soosies	14 by 1¼ at 44 ditto.
Marasgange, blue	30 by 13¼ at 48 ditto.	Boglepore ditto	14 by 1¼ at 32 ditto.
Illehabad, ditto	36 by 2 at 75 ditto.	Cossimbuzar taffeties	4 rupees per piece.
Nabobgunge, ditto	36 by 2 at 75 ditto.	Blue gurrahs black mark	95 ditto corge.
Cawpore, ditto	28 by 2 at 60 ditto.	Gillah handkerchiefs	47 ditto ditto.

Wheat, rice, both fine and coarse, dholl, and salt provisions are likewise brought from Bengal.

The following articles of European produce find a ready sale with the military establishment here, the natives of Amboyna, and the neighbouring islands, but not to any very great extent:

Ale and porter.	Garden seeds.	Looking-glasses.	Plated goods.
Books & pamphlets.	Guns and pistols.	Lead in sheets & pigs.	Port wine.
Boots and shoes.	Gunpowder.	Madeira wine.	Provisions, salt.
Brandy, cherry.	Glass-ware.	Lace gold.	Ship-chandlery.
Cabinet-ware.	Hats.	Musical instruments	Shot, patent.
Cards.	Haberdashery.	Millinery.	Steel in faggots.
Claret.	Hosiery.	Nails of all sorts.	Silver plate.
Cloths & cassimeres.	Jewellery.	Oilcloth's stores.	Stationery.
Cutlery.	Iron in bars.	Paints of colours.	Tobacco-pipes.
Gin, Hollands.	Ironmongery.	Perfumery.	Watches.

With proper encouragement, the inhabitants of New Guinea, Celebes, Gilolo, and the neighbouring islands would resort to Amboyna to supply themselves with the produce of Europe and India, and bring with them their own commodities, which are principally calculated for the China market, *viz.*

Birds' nests.	Mother o'pearl shells	Sandal-wood	Wax.
Beech de mer.	Missoy bark.	Sago.	Agal agal.
Black wood.	Nutmegs.	Sea-weed.	Seed pearl.
Birds of Paradise.	Rattans.	Tortoise-shell.	Stick-lac.

On this and the neighbouring islands are found many beautiful and valuable shells.

EXPORTS.

The staple commodity here, and for which these islands are retained, is cloves; the annual produce is said to be about 600,000 lbs. but it varies considerably. The following is an account of the number of trees and entire produce of all the provinces under the Government of Amboyna for 1794–5:

Amboyna	Trees 39,610	Bahars 103,220	or lbs.	56,672
Saparoa and Noossa Laut	44,953	933,450		513,600
Haraucka	25,051	179,144		998,594
Hiloe	17,410	10,325		5,825
Larique	12,072	27,506		15,356
Total	139,096	Bahars 1,254,347	lbs.	690,040

The Dutch used to pay for every bahar of cloves 56 rix-dollars, the bahar being about 550 lbs.; and an allowance, or rather deduction, of 20 per cent. was allowed by the Company to their servants for wastage, and divided according to an established regulation. The quantity imported into Holland, and sold at their sales for six years, ending 1791, was as follows:

1786	lbs. 24,205	£6,160	1789	lbs. 1,434,372	£383,295
1787	655,000	166,725	1790	231,727	58,860
1788	410,400	104,465	1791	830,000	211,270

Being, on an average of six years, 597,617 lbs. and the amount per annum £155,129; besides which, considerable quantities are annually sent to various parts of India, Persia, Arabia, and China, the exact amount of which it is impossible to ascertain. When the island was taken possession of in 1796, there were in store 515,940 lbs. of cloves.

Individuals not being permitted to trade in cloves, their returns are made in bills on Bengal, on account of the Government. Sometimes cloves are to be procured clandestinely, likewise nutmegs and mace. The prices in 1802 for goods procured here were as follow:

Cloves	1 Rupee per Dutch lb.	Mace	1½ Dollar per Dutch lb.
Nutmegs	1 Spanish dollar ditto.	Oil of cloves	10 ditto per bottle.
Ditto, oil of	12 ditto per bottle.	Cajeputa oil	5½ ditto.

CUSTOM HOUSE REGULATIONS.

All commanders of trading ships, or of any other ships whatsoever, importing goods for sale, on whatever account they may be, whether prizes or private property, on their arrival in this port, are to present the manifest and invoices of the cargo to the farmer of the customs, without concealing any part thereof, under pain of forfeiting 100 ducatoons.

All goods whatsoever that are not disembarked at the wharf-head, are to be disembarked at the shalmuda, or custom house, and no where else, and there to be opened. The goods that may be taken out of ships lying at the wharf-head, are to be opened there before they are carried any further, in the presence of the farmer of the customs or his deputies. Any persons deviating from this will be fined 25 rix-dollars, and forfeit such goods as they may attempt to smuggle, or dispose of in any other way.

All goods whatsoever brought here, from whatever part, belonging to any person soever, sold at this place, as well the Honourable Company as individuals, must pay the duties mentioned hereunder, no person being exempt therefrom, except such goods as are sent and come originally on account of the Honourable Company, but not those which are sold to, or brought by the Honourable Company here.

The port-master has proper instructions, at the wharf-head, to prevent molestation to the farmer on landing and opening the goods.

The centinel at the wharf-head has instructions not to let pass any goods whatsoever, without the permission of the port-master, to whom the farmer must give timely notice when the goods have been seen.

The farmer has permission, for the better exercising his duty, and for preventing loss by smuggling, &c. to erect a small shed for his people near the wharf-head.

No person, on pain of paying 25 rix-dollars, shall ill use, or otherwise abuse the farmer of the customs, or his deputies, in the execution of their duty.

DUTY ON IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

The following are the rates of duty levied on imports and exports:

On all kinds of Western cloths, Bengal, Coromandel, Ceylon, &c. ..... 6 per cent.
On Java, Cheribon, Bally, Bantam, Macassar, or other kind of Eastern texture ..... 15 ditto.
On all kinds of China merchandise imported ..... 10 ditto.
All kinds of goods moved from one ship to another must be first landed, and pay ..... 5 ditto.
Every last, or 3000 lbs. Dutch weight, of rice imported ..... 2 rix-dollars.
Ditto ..... ditto ..... paddy ..... 1 ditto.
All sorts of provisions, &c. birds' nests, tripangs, agamgar, and tortoise-shell ..... 5 per cent.
All live cattle ..... duty free.
On arrack, for every leager, 5 rix-dollars; one-third of a leager, 1 ducatoon; and for a case, 24 stivers; 30 stivers for 30 bottles.
All European liquors are exempt from duty.
Nutmegs, mace, and cloves are prohibited to be sold, except by the Company.

All goods, not particularly specified in the above, to pay 5 per cent. on the sale of the goods.

No commander of any merchant ship arrived at this port, to receive or entertain any person whatever, not being part of the crew brought into port, unless such person has permission from under the hands of the Governor, and in his absence, of the commanding officer of the garrison, on pain of being fined 500 rix-dollars for each person discovered on board the ship, not part of the crew above mentioned; and commanders of ships, on entering any men here to serve as part of the crew of his ship, are to take all such people individually before the Fiscal, that he may take cognisance of their persons, and give a certificate under his hand that there are no objections or impediment, within his knowledge, against such person being received as part of the crew.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Fresh meat for a ship's crew is seldom to be procured; the little the garrison have, is brought from Bouro. There are no sheep, poultry is scarce and dear; a few deer and wild hogs are in the

woods, but difficult to be got. Water is procured up the harbour, seven or eight miles from where the ships lay. The watering place is up a small inlet; it is a fine full river, running down from the rocks, and with hoses you can fill your butts in a very short time: it will be necessary to get the boats in and out as near high water as possible. You will be directed to the watering place by two houses, which are situated at about a musket shot on each side of it.

Haraucka.—This island is about three miles to the eastward of Amboyna; on the west is a fort, with a small garrison. This place, with some part of Amboyna on the Hiloe Peninsula, is under the superintendence of the Resident here.

Saparoua is about 35 miles from Amboyna; the fort is on the south side. This island and Noossa Laut yield an abundance of fine cloves; these, with four districts on the S.W. side of Amboyna, are under the Resident stationed here, and it is esteemed the most valuable appointment under the Government.

Noossa Laut is the easternmost and smallest of the Clove Islands, and bears from Amboyna E. ¼ N. about 40 miles' distance. The fort is on the western side of the island, where is a small garrison.

For the more convenient collection of the cloves, the Dutch formed several small residencies subordinate to the chief establishment. Under the immediate management of the Governor are a number of districts in the Leytimore division. Under the resident at Saparoua are four districts on the S.W. side of the islands Saparoua and Noossa Laut. The Island of Haraucka, and several districts opposite it on the Hiloe Peninsula, form one province under the superintendence of the Resident. All these districts abound in cloves, the cultivation of which is strictly prohibited in every other part of the island.

CLOVES.

The clove-tree is a native of the Molucca Islands, particularly Amboyna, where it is principally cultivated. It is a very handsome tree, somewhat resembling a large pear-tree; its stem is straight, and at the distance of five feet from the ground its branches begin; the bark is thin and smooth, and adheres closely to the wood. The wood is heavy and hard; the leaves stand two and two opposite; they are about a hand's breadth long, and two inches broad, pointed, ribbed, and reddish on the upper side, but smooth and of a bright green colour on the under side; they have a very aromatic smell when bruised between the fingers. When a tree is nine years old, and has been well attended to, it begins to yield cloves; they appear in the beginning of the rainy season; they are then little dark green longish buds, and become perfect cloves in shape in the month of August or September; they then turn yellow, and afterwards red, which is the time for gathering them. If they are suffered to remain three or four weeks longer, they swell, and become what are called mother cloves, which are proper for propagation or for candying, but not fit for drying as a spice. The cloves grow on separate stalks, but in bunches of three or more together. Valentyn describes four sorts; that which he calls the male clove is the sort used for drying; the female produces cloves of a pale colour, which are the best for extracting of oil; the king's clove is a very scarce species, bearing larger and double cloves; the fourth sort is called rice cloves, which are very small, but likewise very rare. The clove produced upon the wild clove-tree has no kind of spiciness. At the time of gathering the clove, the ground is carefully swept under the trees, that none may be lost. They are generally pulled off by long hooks, or beaten down with bamboos; large cloths are spread to receive them, and they are afterwards either dried by the fire or in the sun: the last mode is the best of drying them. The usual time of the clove crop is in October, and it lasts till December. The crop of cloves depends much upon the temperature of the weather in June and September; an after crop is sometimes made, but the time is uncertain, and it does not often happen.

The clove in shape resembles a short thick square nail, of a rusty colour, inclining to black, having at its larger end four small points like a star, in the middle of which is a round ball of a lighter colour than the rest, composed of four small scales or leaves. Cloves should be chosen large sized, perfect in all parts, and heavy, of a fine fragrant smell, and hot aromatic taste, so as almost to burn the throat; the colour should be a dark brown, almost approaching to black, and when handled, should leave an oily moisture upon the fingers. When fresh gathered, cloves will yield, on simple pressure, a fragrant thick reddish oil. They have sometimes a considerable portion of their essential oil drawn from them, and are then mixed with those which are fresh. By this mixture the purchaser may be deceived; but, on examination, those cloves which have lost their virtue, always continue weaker than the rest, and of a paler colour; and whenever they look shrivelled, having lost the knob at the top, and are light and broken, with but little smell or taste, they should be rejected, as it affords reason to suspect the oil has been extracted from them. As cloves readily absorb moisture, it is not uncommon, when a quantity is ordered, for them to be kept near a vessel of water, by which means a considerable addition to their weight is made.

The following is an account of the quantities of cloves imported and sold by the East India Company in the years 1803–4 and 5 inclusive, together with the sale value;

	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.	
1803.....	32,401 lbs.	£5,805	17,040 lbs.	£2,984	49,441 lbs.	£8,789
1804.....	110,099	17,198	17,767	2,796	127,866	19,994
1805.....	81,032	12,543	98,475	15,369	179,507	27,912

The quantity of cloves retained for home consumption in the six years, 1804 to 1809 inclusive, was 125,340 lbs. on an average 20,890 lbs. per annum. The annual revenue derived therefrom was £3861.

12 cwt. of cloves are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is 3s. 6d. per lb. and the temporary or war duty 1s. 2d. making in the whole 4s. 6d. per lb.

OIL OF CLOVES.

This oil is procured from the cloves by distillation. When new, it is of a pale reddish brown colour, which becomes darker by age; it is extremely hot and fiery, and sinks in water. The kind generally imported from India, contains nearly half its weight, of an insipid expressed oil, which is discovered by dropping a little into spirits of wine, and on shaking it, the genuine oil mixes with the spirit, and the insipid separating, the fraud is discovered. It is sometimes adulterated with a cheaper essential oil; to discover this, dip a rag into it, and hold it before the fire; the flavour of the genuine oil will fly off, leaving that of the added sufficiently distinct behind.

The permanent duty is 1s. and the war duty 4d. making in the whole 1s. 4d. per ounce.

BOURO.

This island, which is of considerable size, is about 55 miles west of Amboyna. The principal town, called Cajeli by the Dutch, where there is a fort with a small garrison, is situated at the bottom of Bouro Bay, on the east side of the island, in latitude 3° 24′ South, and longitude 126° 58′ East. The fort, called Fort Defence, stands about 100 feet from high water mark, and in the middle of the town, which extends along shore about 1¼ mile on each side; it hardly deserves the name of a fort, being in a state of ruin, and having but three or four guns of the smallest calibre, and a few one pound swivels mounted on its walls, none of which would hardly bear firing twice. The garrison consists of about 50 men, under the command of an officer, and is subordinate to Amboyna. The best anchorage is with the fort bearing S. by E. ¼ E. distance three-quarters of a mile.

This island is considered the granary of Amboyna; large quantities of rice, sago-flour, and other provisions are constantly sent there. It also produces several kinds of excellent timber, and many beautiful sorts of wood, similar to those at Amboyna. The famous cajeputa oil is chiefly prepared here, and sent to Fort Victoria.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Beef is difficult to be procured, it being reserved for Amboyna; the only live stock they have, are goats and fowls, both of which are scarce. Deer and wild hogs can be got every day, but not in sufficient quantities for two or three ships. The best method of procuring stock is by bartering knives and common Coast cloths; for so little do the natives know the value of money, that they prize a common Lascar knife as much as half a dollar in silver. Fish does not appear to be very plentiful, or in any great variety; there are, however, a few turtles occasionally; and several sorts of beautiful shells are to be found on the sea-shore. The following are the prices paid in 1802:

Fine white sago-flour .....3 dollars per cwt.	Paddy.....½ dollar per bushel.
Baked sago-bread .....2 ditto....ditto.	Pumpkins.....25 for 1 dollar.
Fowls.....2 ditto per dozen.	Cocoa-nuts .....200 ditto.
Deer .....2 ditto each.	Large turtle .....1½ to 2 dollars each.
Wild hogs.....2 ditto.	Cajeputa oil .....2 dollars per quart.

Yams, bananas, limes, and various other fruits and vegetables are brought off by the natives, and exchanged for common clasp knives and coarse red and white China handkerchief. The best watering place is just above high water mark, about 100 yards to the eastward of the fort, where the water is very good; it is necessary to swim your casks on shore, and back again when full, as the shore is so flat that a long boat cannot come within 100 yards of low water mark.

CERAM.

This island, which is high and mountainous, extends nearly east and west, about 54 leagues; the S.W. point is in latitude 3° 31′ South, and longitude 127° 56′ East. There are several harbours: Lahoo, near the S.W. point; Sawa, on the north coast, in latitude 2° 51′ South; and Wakoo, on the N. E. part, in latitude 3° 25′ South, and longitude 130° 30′ East.

The inhabitants are in general hospitable to Europeans, who touch here for refreshments, or to trade. The natives of the neighbouring islands bring beech de mer, birds' nests, long nutmegs, birds of Paradise, and sago; sometimes spices are smuggled from Banda and Amboyna, and to be procured at reasonable rates; in return for which, they take coarse blue, white, and red piece-goods, iron, coarse cutlery, looking-glasses, &c. The prices of goods are as follow:

Beech de mer, black sort ..10 to 12 doll. per pecul.	Long nutmegs.....12 to 15 doll. per pecul.
Ditto.....white..... 5 to 6 ditto.	Banda ditto ..... 1 ditto per catty.
Bird's nests, mixed and foul 4 to 6 ditto per catty.	Mace ..... 1 ditto.
Sago.....1½ to 2 ditto per pecul.	Cloves.....45 to 60 ditto per pecul.

There are no cattle to be procured; but wild hogs, deer, and poultry are in abundance. Some presents are necessary to the Rajahs and principal men at the different places, for permission to trade, or to obtain refreshments.

MYSOL.

This island is about 15 leagues N. E. of Ceram; it extends east and west about 14 leagues. On the south side, in latitude 2° 12' South, and longitude 127° East, is the Harbour of Efbe, formed by an island of the same name and the coast of Mysol. The village of Efbe is small, and the houses are all built upon posts in the water. Here is a Rajah, to whom presents are necessary, in the event of a vessel touching here for refreshments. Fresh water may be had on the island, or from a small river opposite it, on Mysol.

The N. W. point of New Guinea is about 25 leagues from Mysol. To the northward are several islands, the principal of which are Salwatty, Batanta, and Waygiou. There are several harbours and bays which have been occasionally visited by European vessels, but not affording articles of trade, are but imperfectly known.

The inhabitants of New Guinea and the neighbouring islands are called Papuans. They carry on a trade in their own boats with the Spice Islands, conveying their own produce, which consists of

Ambergris.	Birds of Paradise.	Pearls.	Slaves.
Beech de mer.	Missoy bark.	Pearl shells.	Tortoise-shell.

and many kinds of curious birds, which the Papuans have a particular way of drying; for which they receive in return the under-mentioned articles:

Beads.	Brass wire.	Cutlery.	Iron, in bars.
China-ware.	Course piece-goods.	Gold and silver lace.	Looking-glasses.

BIRDS OF PARADISE.

In this part are to be met with the various kinds of Birds of Paradise. The Portuguese first found them on Gilolo, the Papuan Islands, and New Guinea. Fabulous accounts mention that this bird had no legs, and was constantly on the wing in the air, on which it lived; in confirmation of which, the legs of these birds were cut off when offered for sale: but the Papuans, who resort yearly to Banda, have undeceived the Dutch, and freed them from those prejudices. Another reason for cutting off the legs, is that the birds are found to be more easily preserved without them; besides the Moors want them without legs, in order to put them into their helmets as ornaments.

These birds are valuable, and extremely well suited for an ornament of dress, both by their lightness and beauty; they are employed for the same purposes as the feathers of the ostrich. There are seven species of Birds of Paradise described by Valentyn.

I. The large Bird of Paradise is commonly two feet four inches in length; the head is small, the bill hard and long, of a pale colour. The head and back of the neck is lemon-coloured, but about its little eyes black; about the neck, the bird is of a bright gloss emerald green, and soft like velvet, as is the breast, which is black or wolf-coloured. The wings are large and chesnut; the back part of the body is covered with long straight narrow feathers, of a pale brown colour, similar to the plumes of the ostrich. These feathers are spread when the bird is on the wing, which is the cause that he can keep very long in the air. On both sides of the belly are two tufts of stiff and shorter feathers, of a golden yellow, and shining. From the rump proceed two long stiff shafts, which are feathered on their extremities.—They come always in flocks of thirty or forty, and are led by a bird which the inhabitants call the king, distinct from the little king bird. This leader is black with red spots, and constantly flies higher than the rest of the flock, which never forsake him, but settle as soon he settles—a circumstance which becomes their ruin when the king lights on the ground, from whence they are not able to rise, on account of the singular structure and disposition of their plumage.

The natives catch them with bird-lime and in nooses, or shoot them with blunt arrows; they then cut their legs off, draw the entrails, and fumigate them, and sell them at Banda for about a rix-dollar each; whereas at Aroo one of these birds may be bought for a spike-nail, or a piece of old iron.

II. The small Bird of Paradise is about twenty inches long; his beak is lead-coloured, and paler at the point, the eyes small, and enclosed in black; about the neck he is green like an emerald; the head and back of the neck are of a dirty yellow; the back of a greyish yellow; the breast and belly of a dusky colour; the wings small, and chesnut-coloured. The long plumage is about a foot long, and paler than in the larger species, as in general the colours of this small bird are less bright. The two long feathers of the tail are constantly thrown away by the natives. This is in all respects like the greater sort; they follow likewise a king, or leader, who is however blacker, with a purplish cast, and finer in colour than the rest; though this bird is also different from the third and fourth black species. This kind is found only in the Papua Islands.

III. The large black Bird of Paradise is brought without wings or legs for sale, so that of this species it is difficult to give an exact description. Its figure, when stuffed, is narrow and round, but stretched in length to the extent of four spans. The plumage on the neck, head, and belly is black and velvet-like, with a hue of purple and gold, which appears very strong. The bill is blackish, and one inch in length; on both sides are two bunches of feathers, which have the appearance of wings, although they are very different, the wings being cut off by the natives. The plumage is soft, broad, similar to peacocks' feathers, with a glorious gloss and greenish hue. The feathers of the tail are of unequal length; those next to the belly are narrow, like hair; the two uppermost are much longer, and pointed; those immediately under them are above a span and a half longer than the upper ones; they are stiff on both sides, fringed with a plumage like hair, black above, but glossy below. Birds of this kind are brought from no other place than New Guinea. The inhabitants carry them to Salwatty in hollow tubes of bamboo, and sell them for small hatchets or coarse cloth.

IV. The smaller black Bird of Paradise.—The plumage of this sort is equal in length with that of the above, but thinner in body, black above, and without any remarkable gloss, not having those shining peacock feathers which are found on the greater species. This wants likewise the three long pointed feathers of the tail, belonging to the larger black species of the Bird of Paradise. The inhabitants of the mountains of Mysol shoot those birds, and sell them to the people of Tidore.

V. The white Bird of Paradise is the most rare; it is of two species, one quite white, and the other black and white. The first sort is very rare, and in form like the Bird of Paradise from Papua. The second has the forepart black, and the back part white, with twelve crooked wiry shafts, which are almost naked, though in some parts covered with hair. This species is very scarce, and only to be procured by means of the people of Tidore, since it is found on the Papua Islands.

VI. The unknown black Bird of Paradise.—In the year 1689 a new species was seen at Amboyna, carried from Mysol, only one foot in length, with a fine purple hue, a small head, and straight bill. As on the other Birds of Paradise, on its back, near the wings, are feathers of a purple and blue colour; but under the wings, and over all the belly, they are yellow coloured, as in the common sort; on the back of the neck they are mouse-coloured mixed with green. It is remarkable in this species that there are before the wings two roundish tufts of feathers, which are green edged, and may be moved at pleasure by the bird-like wings. Instead of tail, he has twelve or thirteen black naked, wire-like shafts, hanging promiscuously like feathers. His strong legs have sharp claws; his head is remarkably small; the eyes are likewise small, and surrounded by black.

VII. The King Bird of Paradise.—This bird is about seven inches long, and somewhat larger than the titmouse. Its head and eyes are small, the bill straight, the eyes included in circles of black plumage; the crown of the head is fire coloured, the back of the neck blood coloured, the neck and breast of a chesnut colour, with a dark ring of the brightest emerald green. Its wings are in proportion strong, and the quill feathers dark, with red shining plumes, spots, and stripes. The tail is straight, short, and brown. Two long naked, black shafts project from the rump at least a hand's breadth beyond the tail, having at their extremities semilunar twisted plumage, of the most glaring green colour above, and dusky below. The belly is white, and green sprinkled, and on each side is a tuft of long plumage, with a broad margin, being on one side green, and on the other dusky. The back is blood red and brown, shining like silk. The legs are in size like those of the lark, having three fore toes and one back toe. This kind is chiefly brought from Aroo, where it is occasionally worn as an ornament by the natives.

The permanent duty on feathers is 37½ per cent. and the war duty 12½ per cent. on the sale value.

GILOLO.

This island, which is of considerable size and singular form, seems to divide the Indian Ocean, to the eastward, from the Great South Sea; it extends from the latitude of 3° 10 North to 50° South. The western side is nearly straight. On the east side is a peninsula that points due east, and from the base of that another to the northward, leaving between it and the western extent of the island, a bay, extremely narrow, but very deep, penetrating about half through the island; this is called Ossa Bay. The town of Ossa is situated in latitude 45° North, and longitude 128° 22 East. The south side of the bay abounds with nutmegs, and has a fine watering place. Here ships may procure water and refreshments, and on some of the islands excellent timber for spars.

There are several other towns in various parts of the island, viz. Maba, Patany, and Weda; but being seldom visited by Europeans, they are little known. This island was formerly under the controul of the Dutch, but is at present independent of that or any other European nation, and under the government of several independent Rajahs, or Chiefs.

A considerable trade is carried on in their own proas with Amboyna and the neighbouring islands, from whence they import the following articles:

Cutlery.	China-ware.	Iron, in bars.	Piece-goods.
Cloth, chiefly scarlet	Gold lace.	Opium.	Steel.

The articles in which they make their returns, are chiefly the under-mentioned:

Male nutmegs	30 to 40 dollars per pecul.	Birds' nests, inferior	4 to 6 dollars per catty.
Mace	40 to 50 ditto.	Pearl shells	2 to 3 ditto per pecul.
Cloves	35 to 45 ditto.	Seed pearl	8 to 10 ditto per dollar wt.
Beech de mer	8 to 10 ditto.	Tortoise-shell	45 to 50 ditto.

Large quantities of sago are to be procured extremely reasonable.

The Island of Gilolo abounds with bullocks and buffaloes, goats, deer, and wild hogs; the latter frequent the places where sago-trees have been felled, and feeding upon the remains, grow very fat, and make excellent meat.

The islands of Ternate, Tidore, Motyr, Matchian, and Batchian, adjacent to the west coast of Gilolo, and situated between the equator and the first degree of north latitude, were formerly considered as the principal, and even the only Spice Islands, the nutmeg-tree and clove-tree being diffused in these islands in a much greater quantity than at Amboyna, Banda, or any other island; but the Dutch wishing

to appropriate these valuable trees exclusively to themselves, forced the Sovereigns of the former islands to destroy the plantations of them. At their Courts they kept agents who were very busy and strict in their visits; and these trees were allowed to be cultivated only at Amboyna, Banda, and the other islands which were under the immediate dependence of the Company, and where they could exercise a continual superintendence. This inquisition, introduced by Dutch cupidity, was singularly counteracted by birds which deposited the seeds of the spice-trees in the islands circumjacent to those where they were cultivated. This had determined the Company also to fix Residents there, whose principal mission was to make constant researches, in order to destroy all those which they might meet with. Often, indeed, the trees happened to be sown in places so steep, that they escaped the most active efforts of the destroyers.

TERNATE

Is the northernmost, and though small, the largest of the former Spice Islands, and remarkable for its volcanoes. The Dutch have a fortress on the east side, called Fort Orange, in which they have a strong garrison; it is in latitude 48′ North, and longitude 127° 20′ East. The anchorage is near the shore, abreast of the town. The King resides here in great state; the Dutch pay him every external respect, but at the same time curb him in every commercial attempt. His dominions comprehend the greater part of the north end of Gilolo; likewise a great part of the N. E. quarter of Celebes, where the settlements of Manado and Gonong Tello are situated; to him also belong the Islands of Sangir, Siao, and several of the small neighbouring ones.

This island was visited by the Portuguese in 1521, where they found the Spaniards, who, by sailing round Cape Horn, had arrived here, and built a fort on the neighbouring island, Tidore. The Portuguese obtained permission to build a fort. For many years the two nations were quarrelling respecting these islands. In 1528 the King of Spain ceded his right in them to the Portuguese for 350,000 ducats. These islands remained at peace till the arrival of the Dutch in 1607, who, with the assistance of the inhabitants, expelled the Portuguese, and in 1638 a treaty was concluded between the King of Ternate and the Dutch, which has been frequently renewed; but, in order to enforce the observance, three forts, with sufficient garrisons, are established at different places on the island.

The Dutch have a civil Governor and Council, besides a Shabundar and Fiscal, whose power is often severely felt, not only by the natives, but also by Europeans, who are prohibited trading with all other foreign parts than Batavia. No Chinese junk or vessel is permitted to come here from China; but Chinese junks trade to Macassar, which may be considered the west frontier to the Moluccas; in short, the Dutch contrive to make Ternate as dependent as possible on Batavia for what they want; and although the inhabitants of Sooloo send vessels to Ternate, no Dutch or Chinese inhabitant can obtain permission to send a vessel to Sooloo.

This island was captured by the English from the Dutch in the last war, and the garrison taken into British pay. Trade was somewhat encouraged, though the natives are very poor, and the Chinese not possessed of so much property as in those settlements where trade is liberally carried on. It was given up to the Dutch at the Peace of Amiens.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Coins.—Accounts are kept in rix-dollars and Spanish dollars. Duccatoons and crowns pass here. The rate of exchange is 80 duccatoons per 100 Spanish dollars; 102 crowns per 100 Spanish dollars.

Weights.—China weights are in common use. The bahar here is 4 cantars and 6 lbs. and each cantar 100 lbs. avoirdupois, which make the bahar 406 lbs.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—From India are imported the following Asiatic and European produce, but in very small quantities, the demand being very limited:

Ale.	Garden seeds.	Lead.	Port wine.
Boots and shoes.	Guns and pistols.	Looking glasses.	Rum.
Brandy.	Gunpowder.	Madeira.	Rice.
Cabinet ware.	Glass ware.	Lace, gold.	Ship-chandlery.
Claret.	Hats.	Nails.	Shot.
Copper.	Hosiery.	Oilman's stores.	Steel.
Cutlery.	Iron in bars.	Opium.	Stationery.
Geneva.	Ironmongery.	Piece-goods.	Watches.

The proas from Sooloo bring beech de mer, gold-dust, Missoy bark, pearls, &c.

EXPORTS.—These consist of gold-dust, tortoise-shell, wax, and a few spices, which are sometimes to be procured, notwithstanding the vigilance of the Dutch; the balance is paid in Spanish dollars. A few birds of Paradise, and shells of many kinds are to be got here.

DUTIES.

During the administration of the English, the duties were similar to those at Amboyna, viz.

On India piece-goods, imported on English ships ..... 6 per cent.
On foreign ships, not American ..... 12 ditto.
On goods manufactured in any of the Dutch possessions on Java, Macassar, &c. ..... 15 ditto.
On all kinds of China merchandise ..... 5 ditto.
On all kinds of provisions, &c. birds' nests, tortoise-shell, &c. ..... 5 ditto.
Nutmegs, mace, and cloves are prohibited to be sold by individuals.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS

Of all kinds are scarce and dear. Rice is imported from Manado on Celebes. Wild hogs and deer are plentiful in the woods; vegetables are, however, more abundant here than at any of the islands; wood and water are easily procured.

TIDORE.

This island is situated about three leagues to the southward of Ternate, in latitude about 43 North, and longitude 127° 37 East. The town is on the east side of the island, near which ships anchor in 30 fathoms. It is now under its own Prince, having been given up by the English on their capturing it in the last war. It is very populous; the people are principally Mahometans, and there are said to be twenty-five mosques on the island.

This island was first visited by the Spaniards, under Magellan, November 8, 1521, who were kindly received, and obtained permission to build a factory. At that period cloves were so plentiful, that they purchased them at the rate of ten yards of good red cloth, or 15 yards of a meaner kind, per bahar of cloves, weighing 406 lbs. After visiting the neighbouring islands, Matchian and Batchian, they returned to Europe.

In 1527 the Portuguese succeeded in driving them from the island, of which they took possession, but not without a considerable struggle, in which the King of Tidore sided with the Spaniards, and that of Ternate with the Portuguese. In 1607 the Dutch arriving in these seas, soon managed to drive out the Portuguese, from which time till its capture by the English, it had remained in their hands. The King possesses great part of the S. E. portion of Gilolo, in which are three towns, where some trade is carried on, *viz.* Patany, Maba, and Weda; he likewise claims the islands of Waygiou, Mysol, and Batanta. There is a great trade here with New Guinea, Gilolo, and with the northern islands, and the Chinese, who are an industrious people, are much interested in it.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

All goods are bought and sold for Spanish dollars, and in general by the Chinese pecul; but small Dutch money is in circulation, and their weights are in common use.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—These are similar to those of the neighbouring island, Ternate, consisting of

China-ware.	Gunpowder.	Looking-glasses.	Piece-goods of sorts.
Cloth, scarlet.	Glass-ware.	Lead.	Shot.
Cutlery, coarse.	Iron, in bars.	Lace, gold & silver.	Steel.
Guns and muskets.	Ironmongery.	Nails.	Watches.

The proas import from Sooloo, New Guinea, Gilolo, Waygiou, and the other islands,

Agal Agal.	Birds of Paradise.	Pearl shells.	Sandal-wood.
Birds' nests.	Missoy bark.	Rattans.	Tortoise-shell.
Black-wood.	Nutmegs.	Sago.	Wax.
Beech de mer.	Pearls.	Stick-lac.	

taking in return the produce of India and China, before mentioned.

DUTIES.

There are no duties levied on imports or exports, but presents are made to the Sultan and his principal men, according to the business done.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Bullocks are to be got from Gilolo, likewise goats, but deer and wild hogs in abundance, various kinds of fruits, and some vegetables. The sea yields plenty of excellent fish. The Kemoo or Kima cockle is in abundance amongst these islands; the small ones, about the size of a man's head, are very good, and will keep long alive, if wetted frequently with salt water.

The Dutch had formerly a fort, called Fort Barneveldt, on the island of Batchian, which fronts the S.W. part of Gilolo, with a small garrison to keep the natives in awe, and to prevent the cultivation of spices. The Sultan is master of several of the neighbouring islands.

CELEBES.

This island is separated from Borneo by the Strait of Macassar, which is about 115 leagues long, and generally from 35 to 45 leagues wide, except where it is contracted by the projection of Point Kanneevongan, to 17 leagues; it is much frequented by ships bound to China late in the season, though it has no ports where provisions or refreshments can be readily procured.

Celebes is of considerable extent, and of a very irregular form. The Dutch are the only Europeans who ever retained settlements here for any length of time.

MACASSAR.

On the west side of the island is this principal settlement, and to it all the others are subordinate. The road is one of the most beautiful in India, and is very secure, being defended by numerous small islands and sand-banks from almost every wind that blows; but a pilot is necessary to get into the inner roads.

Fort Rotterdam is situated in latitude 5° 9′ South, and longitude 119° 48′ East; it was built by the natives with the assistance of the Portuguese, and is about 800 feet from the beach, opposite to the road, where a pier extends, which serves for unloading the ships, and close to which there are 15 or 16 feet water. The walls of the fort are high and strong, built of rock-stone; without the land-gate is a large plain, on the north side of which is situated the town, where most of the Europeans reside. The streets cross each other at right angles, pointing to the four Cardinal points; most of them are broad, and formed of tolerably good houses; at the end of one of them stands the orphan-house, which is large, but in a very ruinous state. The Chinese all live together in one street, which is named after them. This town is palisadoed all round, and is at night closed by gates, where a watch is constantly kept. Without the town, to the southward, there is a row of buildings, which bounds it on that side, and where likewise the house of the Governor stands. The Bouginese and Malay campons are not far from it; the Campon Baro, where most of the natives and some Europeans live, is south of the fort; there are likewise a few brick houses in it. The church has been rebuilt within these few years, and is a pretty, neat, airy structure. The environs of Macassar are very pleasant. It lies in an extensive plain, which reaches to the foot of a range of high mountains, extending 8 or 10 miles; and the plain is covered with rice fields and pasture grounds.

This island was discovered by the Portuguese about 1525, who obtained permission to establish themselves, where they remained quiet till about 1660, when they were driven out by the Dutch, who hold the fort and surrounding district, in consequence of a treaty entered into with the native Prince. The English established a factory here in 1615, which they were soon under the necessity of abandoning. Numbers of Chinese are settled here, who carry on a considerable trade with their native country.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Accounts are kept in rix-dollars and stivers. Spanish dollars are the common coin, but the under-mentioned also pass current at the following rates:

Ducatoons	13 schillings.	Bombay rupees	5 schillings.
English crowns	10 ditto.	Madras rupees	4 ditto.

The exchange is 4 rix-dollars for 3 Spanish dollars. All bargains are made in the former, which is a nominal coin. They have a kind of mace, 7 of which go to a dollar.

All merchandise is weighed by the dotchin, and then reduced to other weights. Pepper is sold by the ganton, of which 225 make a Banda bahar; there are 2 gantons, 20 of the smaller making one of the

larger. The quoyan of rice is 40 great gantons, each 90 lbs. which make the quoyan 3,600 lbs.; 20 small gantons are equal to a China pecul. Tortoise-shell is purchased by the bahar of 200 catties, weighed by the dotchin.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—The Dutch East India Company import piece-goods, on which they charge 33½ per cent. advance; whatever they sell for beyond that sum, becomes the property of their servants. The other commodities which used to be brought by the commanders of their ships, one or two of which visited Macassar annually, were as follow:

Anchors & grapnels.	Guns and pistols.	Looking glasses.	Sugar.
Brass wire.	Gold thread.	Lace.	Steel, in faggots.
Coarse cutlery.	Iron in bars.	Nails.	Woollens.
Gunpowder.	Lead.	Shot, small.	Watches.

The Dutch allow a junk to come direct from China every year, for which she pays 3000 Spanish dollars in duties. The articles imported by her are

China-ware.	Gongs.	Nankeens.	Sugar-candy.
Canton cloth.	Iron in bars.	Silk piece-goods.	Sweetmeats.
Fireworks.	Iron pans.	Sugar.	Teas.

and a number of small articles for wearing apparel, and other uses.

As soon as these goods are landed, every merchant, for there are several who come in the junk, exposes his commodities for sale in a large house, which is peculiarly adapted for the purpose. This house is the daily resort of the natives, so that the merchandise imported is speedily disposed of.

EXPORTS.—A great number of slaves are annually taken from the island to Batavia by the Dutch; they are not always prisoners taken in war, or criminals, but persons who have been kidnapped for the purpose of being sold, most of the Dutch eastern settlements being supplied from hence. About 100 are annually purchased by the Dutch Company for their own service; the remainder of this iniquitous traffic is in the hands of private individuals and free inhabitants of Batavia and Macassar; these, with gold, of which immense quantities are procured on the island, and rice, form the whole of the productions exported. The following articles, which are taken by the annual junk to China, are imported into the settlement by proas from the surrounding countries.

Beech de mer.	Cloves.	Nutmegs.	Sago.
Black-wood.	Cotton wool.	Rattans.	Tortoise-shell.
Bezoar stones.	Clove bark.	Rice.	Wax.

A particular kind of cotton cloth, called Cambays, is manufactured here, and is an article in great demand in all Malay countries: it is red, checkered, and mixed with blue, much resembling the Tartan plaid; some are as fine as cambric, and sell from 8 to 10 Spanish dollars each. At Bencoolen they laid a heavy duty on them, as they materially interfered with the importation of piece-goods from Bengal.

The established duties are 6 per cent. on import and exports. The Shabundar sometimes trades, if the commanding officer and he are upon good terms; in that case no duties are levied, but presents are necessary, under the plea of obtaining permission to procure supplies.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

The beef here is excellent, and at a reasonable price. Rice, poultry, deer, and wild hogs are in plenty, and fruits of various kinds. Water is generally procured from a small rivulet which runs near the town, but the best is from the wells, and which can be readily shipped off from the pier. Abundance of excellent fish are caught in the roads, and about the islands.

BONTHAIN BAY

Is situated about 30 leagues S.E. from Macassar, and may be known by a hill at the bottom of a bay which is in latitude about 5° 30′ South, and longitude 120° 9′ East. The bay is large, and ships may lie in perfect security in both monsoons; the soundings are good and regular, and the bottom soft mud; the anchorage is with Bonthain Hill bearing North, about half a mile from the shore. In this bay there are several small towns, the principal of which, from whence the bay takes its name, is in the N.E. part of it. Here the Dutch have a small palisadoed fort, with a few guns mounted, standing on the south side of a small river, and there is water for a ship to come close to it. Most of the ships bound to the Spice Islands touch here, and pass between Celebes and Saleyer.

The principal article of trade here is rice, of which large quantities are annually exported; the others are chiefly brought by the proas, and are similar to those enumerated at Macassar.

Provisions and refreshments of all kinds are plentiful and at a cheap rate. The beef is excellent; rice may be had in any quantity, as may fowls and fruit, but wild hogs are not so plentiful. Fish may be caught with the seine, and turtle is occasionally to be procured. The bullocks have humps similar to the Indian ones; there are besides buffaloes, goats, sheep, and deer. Wood and water are to be had in great plenty; the former near a river, under Bonthain Hill; and the latter both from it and another river near the fort: if from the latter, the boats must go above the fort with the casks which are to be filled, where there is a good rolling way; but as the river has a bar, a loaded boat can come out only at high water. The arrack and sugar consumed here are imported from Batavia.

BOOLECOMBA

Is situated about twenty miles from Bonthain, near a small river. In the S. W. monsoon the road is dangerous for shipping; small vessels can, however, run into the river at high water. Near the mouth of the river stands the fort, called Carolina, which is small and palisadoed, having a few guns mounted: it is under the command of the Resident at Bonthain. The land produces large quantities of rice, which is sent to Amboyna and other islands. The wood procured here not being adapted to the construction of houses, it is imported from places more to the eastward, where it is excellent. The anchorage for large ships is, with the flagstaff N. N. W. in 6¼ or 7 fathoms, about 2¼ miles from the shore.

SALEYER.

This island, which extends about 10 leagues North and South, is separated from the south point of Celebes by the Strait of Saleyer. The Dutch used to keep a Resident here in a small palisadoed fort, called Fort Defence. It is well inhabited, and produces large quantities of grain; and much coarse blue and white striped cloth is manufactured from cotton grown on the island.

BUGGESS BAY.

This bay begins on the east side of the south point of Celebes, which forms, with the island of Saleyer, the Straits of that name, and stretches about 3° to the northward into the middle of the island. The west side of the bay is better inhabited than the east, and has several villages belonging to the natives. The principal river and town are called Boni, near the bottom of the bay on the west side, in latitude about 3° South. Ships from Bengal have occasionally visited this place, with a view of trading in opium and piece-goods, and receiving gold-dust, &c. in return; but they have generally been disappointed.

BOUTON.

The south point of this island is in latitude about 5° 42' South, and longitude 122° 44' East. It is well inhabited. The principal town is Bouton, in latitude 5° 27' South; it is built upon an eminence, with a very steep declivity to the N. W. and is surrounded with thick walls, which secure the inhabitants from the incursions of the Malay pirates who frequent this sea. The houses are built of bamboos, and covered with palm-leaves. The Sultan resides in a fort built of stone; he is an ally of the Dutch, but shews great distrust of them. The few Dutch soldiers, who are the only inhabitants of the Company's house, are not permitted to live in the place where he resides, but are obliged to remain in an inconvenient dwelling at some distance from the fort.

The anchorage is with the flagstaff bearing S. 17° W. and the watering place E. N. E. three miles.

Refreshments of various kinds are to be procured here, viz. goats, ducks, fowls, rice, and sugar, for which they will take course cutlery, hardware, &c. but prefer money. The inhabitants are inclined to be treacherous, therefore care should be taken against them.

The east coast of Celebes is very imperfectly known, and little frequented. The extensive peninsula by which this coast is formed, is fronted by islands of various sizes, and many islands are interspersed over the great Bays of Tolo and Tominie, or Gonong Tello.

GONONG TELLO RIVER.

Is situated on the north side of the great Bay of Tominie, or Gonong Tello, which stretches inland nearly to the west side of Celebes. The town is situated about two miles up the river, in latitude 28' North, and about 123° East longitude. It was subject to the Dutch, who had a considerable fort on the river, with two small ones at its entrance; they now hoist English colours, as it was taken possession of in 1797. There is no Resident here. Ships can only anchor at its entrance in deep water. On the eastern side, just within the entrance, are two small coves, either of which a ship may haul into, and lay sheltered from the very strong freshes that come down the river; immense stones lie on the beach in these coves, which are very convenient for mooring to. The inhabitants are chiefly Mahometans, and a considerable trade is carried on here. The Rajah is the principal merchant. For what they have to dispose of, they ask double the price they will take, and what they want to purchase, they will not at first offer above half what is asked.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

Imports.—The articles most in demand here are opium, iron, gunpowder, piece-goods of a common kind, and course cutlery. Very few European goods answer on this part of the island.

Exports.—Gold is one of the principal exports; but it is necessary to be a good judge of it, as they will take every advantage they can, and it is only to be bought in small quantities of different merchants. There are four or five qualities of it; the price, in bars, from nine to eleven Spanish dollars for one dollar weight, and gold-dust about the same price. It is said that gold to any amount might be procured from Celebes. The Dutch from this place used annually to receive from 4 to 6000 ounces; the mines are about a degree to the westward of Gonong Tello.

Tortoise-shell is procured here in considerable quantities at about 1½ to 2 dollars per lb. The Dutch ships that frequented this place, used to carry away many slaves, particularly boys and girls, it being considered a cheap place to procure them at.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Buffaloes are in abundance, from six to nine dollars each; sheep, two or three dollars; goats, one dollar each; fowls are procured for knives—large ones, four for a knife. Pice is the best article to purchase with, as the natives are very poor, seldom having more than one or two fowls, which may be had very cheap for pice. Water and wood are easily procured.

Rice, wax, beech de mer, and a few other articles are to be met with here, and to be got reasonably, if paid for in Spanish dollars.

The northern Coast of Celebes is in general high bold land. Near the northern extreme are two places of trade, Manado and Kemar.

KEMAR

Is in latitude 1° 22′ North, and longitude 125° East; it is on the western side of the point, and there is good anchorage within 1¼ mile of the shore. This place is easily known by the high mountains, the southernmost of which, Mount Chabok, is very high, and may be seen 30 leagues in clear weather. There is no fort here, but a serjeant and about 15 native troops. The Company's agent resides at Manado. Very little trade is carried on here. Opium is always in request, but is only allowed to be sold to the Company. A small quantity of coarse piece-goods is sold annually.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS

Are to be had cheap, but not in any quantity without permission from the Company's Resident. Bullocks and hogs are good; fowls, about one dollar per dozen; rice and paddy, one dollar per bag; yams, onions, and some other vegetables in abundance. The water here is very excellent.

MANADO

Is on the western side of Cape Coff, in latitude 1° 30′ North, and longitude 124° 47′ East. Here is a fort, which the Dutch called Fort Amsterdam, where an English Resident is fixed, who has an officer and a small party of men with him. Opium and piece-goods are imported here, for which they receive gold in return to the extent of 4000 ounces per annum, besides wax and many other articles. The Dutch kept this place and Kemar to furnish provisions for Ternate, this part of Celebes being very fruitful, and abounding in rice, &c.

SANGIR.

This island, which is of considerable size, extending from latitude 3° 21′ North, nearly in a N.N.W. direction, to 3° 46′ South, is of an oblong form; it is broadest towards the north end, and tapers small towards the south, having several good bays. The principal town and bay are about the middle of the west coast, and is called Taroona, in latitude 3° 28′ North, and longitude 125° 44′ East. The anchorage is within a mile of the shore in 60 fathoms, near a small river or watering place. There is also another town, called Tabockang, nearly opposite on the east coast. On anchoring, the canoes come off in great numbers with goats, fowls, yams, cocoa-nuts, and various other fruits and vegetables, for which they prefer white metal buttons to any other commodity; of money they have scarcely an idea. This and the neighbouring islands abound with cocoa-nuts; a fathom of brass wire will purchase 100; an ordinary knife 300; and four knives, a ballet, or 60 lbs. of cocoa-nut oil, and other articles in proportion. Water is procured from the river, but must be rafted off, which requires great caution, as the tides run very rapidly

near the island. The inhabitants are numerous, and appear mild and benevolent; many of them are habited like Chinese, of which it is probable there is a colony on the island.

The Island of Siao bears about S. by W. from Sangir, distant from 12 to 13 leagues.

BORNEO.

This island, which is reckoned one of the largest in the world, abounds with rivers and harbours, of which the following are the principal frequented by the English: Banjar Massin, Succadana, Pontiana, Momparva, Sambass, Borneo, and Passier.

BANJAR MASSIN

Is situated a considerable distance up a river, which empties itself into the sea near Point Salatan, the southern extreme of Borneo, in latitude 3° 51' South. There was formerly a town of that name, about 12 English miles from the sea; but it is now removed about six miles higher up, and called Tattas. The river is navigable for vessels of burthen, and the branch on which Tattas stands, is called China River. The town consists of about 300 houses, most of them built upon floats in the river.

The English established a factory here soon after their first visit to India; but from the treacherous character of the natives, they were soon compelled to withdraw it. In 1700 it was again established, and a chop obtained for trade, with liberty to build a bamboo house, but only to use small arms, not great guns, for its defence, for which were paid, including presents, 1300 dollars. In 1704 permission was obtained to erect fortifications for their protection; and numbers of Chinese and other merchants resorting here to trade, the settlement promised to become of some importance; but the natives suddenly attacked it on the 27th of June, 1707, and though they were at first beat off, the loss of the English was so great, that it was with difficulty the survivors escaped on board the ship, and abandoned the place, leaving behind them property to a considerable amount. This sudden attack was ascribed to the instigation of the Chinese, who, jealous of the proportion of the pepper trade which the English had acquired, persuaded the natives to expel their rivals. Since that period the Dutch have established themselves on the river, where they have a small palisadoed fort, with several bastions and many cannons mounted.

The Dutch Chief occasionally trades with ships visiting the place, but it is in rather a clandestine manner. Should circumstances admit of touching here, you must send a boat well manned and armed up the river to the Dutch factory, and say you want wood, water, and provisions: if possible, hire a small pros, and a man to go with you as linguist; but you must be very much upon your guard how you trust him. You will get a man of this description to go with you for a few dollars, provided he behaves well. Invite the Dutch Chief on board; in all probability he will send down a boat, and request your company on shore, in which case take nothing of value with you except your side-arms. Enquire if the Commandant of the troops and the Chief are on good terms: if they are not, you must be cautious how you talk about trade. Should there be any vessels from the eastward, you should visit them; they may probably have spices, which they will dispose of for opium and Spanish dollars. A number of Chinese reside at Tattas, who carry on a considerable trade with China and other places, and have a number of shops, which are well supplied with the various productions of the East.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Coins.—Spanish dollars are the current coin; a few Dutch coins from Batavia are to be met with; and for small change they have the Chinese cash. The following coins are also in circulation:

Pillar dollars; these, if full weight, pass the same as Spanish dollars.

French crowns; there is a loss on these if taken to China, therefore they should be avoided.

Rupees of various kinds, none of which should be carried to China.

Duccatoons pass here at the rate of 125 Spanish dollars per 100 duccatoons; at Canton they vary, being sometimes as low as 122 Spanish dollars per 100 duccatoons.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.—The weights in common use for gross articles are the pecul and catty; the small weights are teeas, mace, and malaboorongs:

3 malaboorongs	make	1 teea.
6 teeas		1 mace.
16 mace		1 tale, equal to 20 dwts.

The measure for grain is the ganton, 230 of which are a last of rice, weighing 3066½ lbs. avoirdupois; the covid, as a long measure, is in common use.

IMPORTS.

From China the junks bring various articles, such as are enumerated at Borneo Town. The proas from Celebes, New Guinea, and the islands to the eastward, bring the under-mentioned articles:

Birds' nests.	Cloves.	Sago.	Wax.
Beech de mer.	Mace.	Slaves.	
Birds of Paradise.	Nutmegs.	Tortoise-shell.	

Of European and Indian commodities the following are commonly imported:

Brass wire.	Grapnels.	Lead, in sheets.	Small arms.
Coarse cutlery.	Gold lace.	Nails of all sorts.	Steel.
Gunpowder.	Iron, in bars.	Opium.	Scarlet cloth.
Guns, 1 to 3 cwt.	Looking glasses.	Piece-goods.	Watches.

a small quantity of eatables and drinkables, and wearing apparel for the Dutch residents.

EXPORTS.

Pepper is the staple commodity of this place, of which there are three qualities: the first and best is denominated Lout pepper, the next Caytongee, and the third and worst Negaree pepper; of this last sort they have the largest quantity. It is a small, hollow, light pepper, and the most dusty; therefore in making your bargain, you must agree to buy by weight, and not by measure, otherwise they will give you the worst and lightest sort, reserving the heavy sorts for the China junks.

Large quantities of gold are likewise to be procured here; this, like many other eastern commodities is divided into head, belly, and foot. The head, or best, is called Moluccu gold, and is in grains as large as bay salt, of a very irregular shape, and about 22 carats fine. The belly is a smaller sort, like sand or brass filings. The foot is much the same in appearance as the belly; these two sorts are often found mixed with a greater or less quantity of iron-dust, or something much resembling it, which comes out of the rivers. The natives clean it by the help of a loadstone, which they rub among the gold-dust in a shell or dish, whereby the loadstone draws out many of these particles; but it is never got clean out, therefore you cannot be too circumspect when you purchase any; the natives esteem the highest coloured gold.

They have likewise gold in bars, which if you buy, you must cut half through with a chisel; then break and touch them, as they very often cover a base metal so artificially with gold, that if you cut right through with a chisel, instead of breaking it, you will draw the gold over it, and prevent the discovery.

The following articles are likewise to be procured, the prices varying according to the demand:

Birds' nests, head..... 8 to 10 dollars per catty.
Ditto.....belly .....75 to 80 ditto per pecul.
Ditto.....foot .....50 to 55 ditto.
Beech de mer..... 8 to 10 ditto.
Black wood ..... 2 to 3 ditto.
Cloves .....75 to 80 ditto.
Camphire, mixed ..... 8 to 10 ditto per catty.
Gold dust, head.....22 to 23 ditto per buncal.
Gold dust, belly.....21 to 22 dollars per buncal.
Ditto.....foot .....20 to 21 ditto.
Nutmegs.....90 to 100 dollars per pecul.
Ditto .....long kind..... 2 to 3 dollars per 100.
Pepper ..... 9 to 12 ditto per pecul.
Rattans .....10 to 12 ditto per 100 bdls.
Sago ..... 2 to 2½ ditto per pecul.
Wax .....20 to 24 ditto.....ditto.

The wax and birds' nests should be carefully examined, as they generally are very dirty and foul.

The duties in the Dutch settlements are 6 per cent. If the Commandant does business with you, presents will be necessary in proportion to what is transacted.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Provisions of all kinds are in abundance and cheap. Wood and water are easily procured; but it is usual to ask permission officially of the Dutch Chief for leave to procure refreshments, this being considered your only plea for visiting the settlement.

SUCCADANA

Is situated in latitude about 1° 16' South, and longitude 109° 18' East, on the east side of a deep bay, having good anchorage in the roads in 5 or 6 fathoms, with a group of islands to the southward. At the early period of the English commerce it was much frequented, and a factory established, which was afterwards withdrawn. The Dutch kept a Resident here till within these few years; but it is now entirely in the hands of the Malays, who are under the government of a native Prince.

This is an excellent market for opium, and it is occasionally visited by the country ships. The following account of the manner in which business is transacted, is extracted from Elmore's Directory:

"On your arrival, your first visit must be to the Shabundar, or Custom-Master, who will introduce you to the King, and the male part of his family. It is the custom here, as at all eastern ports, to make presents. The Shabundar will enquire what you have brought for sale, and will be inquisitive about the quantity; but you must evade giving him this information, till you have ascertained the market prices, and what goods are most in demand. It has been the custom of this place for the Rajah's family to engross all the opium trade. No strangers are allowed to purchase of the Europeans, nor are the Chinese. All other trade is free; but permission of the Shabundar will be necessary, as also to keep on good terms with him.

"In bargaining for your opium, or other goods, you must settle what returns you are to have. This is generally arranged according to the demand the goods are in. If in great want of them, insist on having all tin; if otherwise, in proportion, half tin, and half pepper; or one-third tin, and two-thirds pepper; or else a proportion of tin, pepper, and gold. Be sure to agree about the price, and let your agreement be in writing, and signed by the party agreed with, whether King or subject, to prevent their flying off, and evading payment, which they will do if possible."

Numbers of Chinese are settled here, and one or two of their junks arrive annually.

COINS AND WEIGHTS.

Coins.—Spanish dollars are the only coin in circulation in their trade with Europeans, and all bargains are made in this money; but accounts among themselves are kept in tale and mace.

WEIGHTS.—All gross goods are weighed by English weights, and then turned into China peculs. Their small weights are busucks, kupangs, mace, pahaw, and tale, thus divided:

2 busucks	make	1 kupang.
4 kupangs	make	1 mace.
4 mace	make	1 pahaw.
4 pahaws	make	1 tale.

By these weights diamonds, gold, bezoar, and other valuable articles are weighed.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS are similar to those already enumerated at Banjar Massin, but in smaller quantities.

EXPORTS.—This place used to be resorted to for diamonds, of which considerable quantities were to be got; they were not considered equal to those procured in India, being generally of a dull water. Gold, tin, and pepper are to be got here; if gold is taken in return for goods, you must trust to the King for its goodness, by having it inserted in your agreement that he is to seal it, and be answerable for its quality. This is the only sure way to take gold at any of the Malay ports; but if you are going to China, the less gold you take, the better.

DUTIES AND PRESENTS.

There is a charge of 250 dollars for anchorage, if you sell goods to that amount; if under that sum, no anchorage is paid. The customs are 5 per cent. upon both goods and dollars. The presents to the principal people should be—the King, to the amount of 50 dollars, the Rajah about 30, and to the Shabundar, and agents 20 each. The King's is generally given at the first audience.

PONTIANA

Is situated upon the principal branch of a large river, which is in latitude 0° 13′ North, and longitude 108° 45′ East. The river discharges itself into the sea by several mouths. This branch is at its entrance twelve feet deep, and at high water sixteen or seventeen feet, so that vessels can proceed to a factory which the Dutch Company settled here about 1774, and where they have built a strong fort. The passage from the mouth of the river to the factory requires ten or twelve hours. At the distance of seven or eight miles from the sea, the river divides itself into two branches, on the southernmost of which the factory stands. The anchorage in the road is from 3½ to 5½ fathoms, the river's mouth E. S. E. off-shore about five miles.

The principal diamond mines in the island are at some distance at the back of this place. The spots where they are to be found, are said to be known by certain small flints, generally of a black colour, which lie on the surface, and also by the yellow colour of the stony soil. The place is dug in the presence of an overseer; and if any stones are found above five carats, they are claimed as the property of the Sovereign. Besides these mines, diamonds are sometimes found in the rivers, but seldom of any size, or to any amount.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Spanish dollars are the principal coin; and the China weights of pecul and catty are in common use.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—The Dutch import piece-goods for the supply of the natives, which they sell at an established rate or advance upon the original cost, at most of their Malay settlements; but opium and other articles are imported either by their own proas from Pulo Pinang, or by country ships stopping here.

EXPORTS.—The following are the principal commodities procured here, the prices of which vary according to the demand:

Bird's nests.....1st sort ...18 to 20 dollars per catty.	Gold-dust.....18 to 24 dollars per buncal.
Ditto .....2d sort....10 to 12 ditto.	Pepper.....10 to 12 ditto per pecul.
Beech de mer, black ....20 to 22 dollars per pecul.	Rattans ..... 8 to 10 ditto per 100 bundles.
Ditto .....white ....10 to 12 ditto.	Sago ..... 2 to 3 ditto per pecul.
Diamonds, according to size and quality.	Wax.....24 to 26 ditto.

On all imports and exports, except opium, a duty of 6 per cent. is levied; but on opium 100 Spanish dollars per chest. A few presents are usually given to the Rajah, but not required.

MOMPARVA.

This river is situated about eight leagues from a high but not very large island, called Pulo Dattoo. The point at its entrance is in latitude about 0° 18' North, and longitude 109° 17' East; it is remarkably low and flat, and difficult to be seen; there are eight or nine islands in the offing, and to the northward of it. A very small island, which lays about two miles from the river to the northward, and quite close in, is a good mark for it. You anchor in 4½ fathoms, soft mud, with Momparva Point about N. E. distance two or three miles. The bar of the river is very shallow, and soft mud; ships' boats will seldom get in before half-flood. About three miles up, are some houses belonging to the Buggesses; here you will get a man to pilot the boat to the town of Momparva, which is about sixteen miles farther up. Upon your arrival, you must wait upon the King, and state to him the business you are come upon; he will then introduce you to the Shabundar, and Captain of the Chinese, with whom you generally begin and transact trade. You must insist upon it that no country boats shall come alongside your ship, but anchor without your buoys, till you send a boat to know their business, when the Noquedah and one more should be admitted, in order to examine the goods; keep your musters up at town, and all boats that go on board from the King or Shabundar, should be furnished with his chop or seal, because that will in some degree make him responsible, if any loss should happen. There are a great number of Chinese merchants settled here, and seldom less than four or five of their junks, which generally arrive in February or March; so that if you come before that time, you may probably make a better sale of your goods. Momparva is one of the best markets to the eastward for opium, as a considerable trade is carried on in the Chinese junks, and by the proas from the neighbouring places and islands.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

The Chinese weights are in common use, and by them all goods are bought and sold. Spanish dollars are the only currency between Europeans and the natives, but China cash pass current amongst themselves.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—These are much larger here than at any place on this coast. It is said that 500 chests of opium are annually consumed at Momparva and its dependencies, the price varying from 500 to 800 Spanish dollars per chest, and sometimes much higher. Of piece-goods and other imports similar to those enumerated at Borneo Town, the quantity is considerable.

EXPORTS.—These are principally gold and pepper; sometimes you will procure tin, but not so cheap as in the Straits of Banca, by two or three Spanish dollars per pecul. Pepper you should get for ten dollars a pecul. The gold is of an inferior sort to that obtained on the Coast of Sumatra, and to the southward of

Borneo; it is called mas moodo, or young gold, and is not worth more than twenty-two dollars the tale of two Spanish dollars weight; but the price varies according to the demand, so that you must be guided by a strict enquiry, which your linguist will make if you do not understand the Malay language yourself.

On opium a duty of 100 Spanish dollars per chest is charged; on other imports and exports 6 per cent. It is necessary to make a present of a piece of each sort of piece-goods you import, on being introduced to the King, and likewise to the Shabundar, with whom it is your interest to be on good terms.

SAMBASS.

This town is situated 10 leagues up the principal branch of a river, the entrance of which is in latitude 1° 12′ North, and longitude 109° 5′ East. The anchorage is with the river's mouth bearing East, about two miles off shore. In trading here, more caution is necessary than at some of the other ports, as several vessels have been recently cut off in the roads. The Chinese who are settled here, carry on a great trade; several junks annually come, bringing with them their own productions, and taking in return the commodities procured here.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

The Chinese weights are in common use. Spanish dollars are the coin in which all bargains are made; but hereabouts wax is the currency of the country; it is melted, but not refined, and cast into moulds of an oblong shape, the breadth about two-thirds of the length, and the thickness about half the breadth, having a rattan to lift them by, cast in the wax. A piece weighs a quarter of a pecul, and is valued in payment at about 10 mace; for smaller payments they have pieces of eight and sixteen to a pecul; and for smaller money, cowries are in use.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—Opium is the most valuable of the imports, and of this article near 500 chests are stated to be annually disposed of here; piece-goods and other articles in proportion.

EXPORTS.—Gold forms the principal part, and is generally the return made for goods. This varies in price from 21 to 23 Spanish dollars per buncal. Pearls are also met with occasionally here, likewise tortoise-shell, and a few other Malay articles.

The duties are levied here as at Momparva, at the rate of 100 dollars per chest of opium, and 6 per cent. on other commodities. A few presents to the Rajah and principal men are necessary.

BORNEO TOWN.

This town is about ten miles up a river of the same name, bearing S.W. from Pulo Chirming, a remarkable island on the coast. One mile from the town, the river bends in a short reach, round a small island, in almost an opposite direction; being up with this island, which you must leave on your right, appears a branch of the river to the left or S.E.; keeping to the right, you approach the town, to which junks of 600 tons come up. The houses are built on each side of the river upon posts, and are ascended by stairs and ladders; those on the left side going up, extend backwards to the land, each in a narrow slip. The land is not steep, but shelving; every house has therefore a kind of stage erected for connexion with the land. There is little intercourse from house to house by land, the chief communication being by boats. On the right going up, the houses extend half a mile backwards, with channels like lanes between the rows. The river here is almost as wide as the Thames at London Bridge, with six fathoms water in the channel; and here lie moored, head and stern, the Chinese junks, four or five of which come annually from Amoy,

of 500 to 600 tons each. Some of the houses on the right side of the water are two stories high, with stages or wharfs to them, for the convenience of trade.

A considerable trade is carried on here with Amoy, and several places in China, and with the neighbouring islands; and timber being plentiful, and good for ship-building, the Chinese build large junks, the artificers and iron work for which are brought from Amoy. One of the burthen of 7000 peculs, near 600 tons, may be built, and fitted out for about 8500 Spanish dollars. The Chinese are better able to carry on trade here than any other nation, from having many of their own people resident, and because the Malays are less jealous of them, as they know they only frequent their ports to trade, and have neither temptation to follow the example of Europeans in making attempts against their liberty, or force to execute it, should they conceive any such design.

The treacherous disposition of the inhabitants of this extensive island has discouraged almost every European from venturing to trade with them. On the N.W. coast, particularly at this place, they have in the river 40 or 50 large proas, which are instantly ready and filled with men, when a ship is to be assaulted. Therefore, unless trading in a large ship, well fitted for defence, it is not safe to remain in the road, and certain destruction to proceed up the river to the town. If a boat is sent on shore, the Rajah will offer to trade when the ship is brought into the river, and when the commander comes to visit him. Beware of complying with these requests; as a short time since, the commander of a large ship, with four of his officers, and part of his crew were massacred, and the ship and cargo seized. Soon after another ship, mounting 18 guns, anchored in the roads, and after remaining a few days, and communicating in her boat with the town, 28 large proas came out of the river with the intention of attacking her, which compelled her to leave this inhospitable place without trading.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Spanish dollars are the common coin, and China cash. The weights are the pecul and catty. The China kangans are used as a currency in the same manner as at Sooloo.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—From China are annually imported the following articles to a considerable amount:

Brass ware.	Glass-ware.	Looking-glasses.	Sugar.
China-ware.	Gongs.	Nankeens.	Sugar-candy.
Canton cloth.	Household furniture	Raw-silk.	Kittisols.
Coarse cutlery.	Iron in bars.	Silk piece-goods.	Sweetmeats.
Fire-works.	Iron pans.	Tea, of sorts.	Woollen goods.

The following piece-goods from India are suitable to the market, and generally find a ready sale:

Beerboom gurrahs	36 by 2¼ covits.	Sanno cosaes	40 by 2 covits.
Red curwars	14 by 13¼ ditto.	Ditto mamoodies	40 by 13¼ ditto.
Blue gurrahs	36 by 2¼ ditto.	Sallam blue	36 by 2 ditto.
White gurrahs	36 by 2¼ ditto.	Blue baftas	24 by 2 ditto.
Patna chintz	15 by 8 ditto.	Patna blue cloth	12 by 2 ditto.
Mow sannoes	24 by 1¼ ditto.	Patna chintz	8 by 2 ditto.
Radnagore soosies	14 by 1¼ ditto.	Illahabad baftas	36 by 2 ditto.
Beglepore ditto	14 by 1¼ ditto.	Blue Tanda cosaes	40 by 2 ditto.

Of opium the consumption is considerable, being estimated from 300 to 400 chests per annum. Of European articles the following are the kinds most in demand, but to a very limited extent:

Anchors & grapnels.	Gold lace.	Iron.	Steel.
Fire-arms.	Gunpowder.	Looking glasses.	Watches.

Exports.—The produce being adapted to the China market, is generally sent in their junks to Amoy; it consists of the following articles, the prices varying according to the demand:

Birds' nests.....1st sort.....18 dollars per catty.	Diamonds..... according to size and quality.
Ditto .....2d ditto .....10 to 12 ditto.	Dammer ..... 1 to 2 dollars per pecul.
Beech de mer, white.....15 to 18 drs. a pecul.	Gold-dust.....22 to 24 drs. per buncal.
Ditto .....black ..... 5 to 8 ditto.	Mother o'pearl shells 2 to 3 dollars per pecul.
Bees-wax .....15 to 20 ditto.	Pearls.....according to size and quality.
Black wood..... 2 to 4 ditto.	Pepper ..... 8 to 10 dollars per pecul.
Bezoar stones.....according to quality.	Rattans..... 8 to 9 ditto.
Cloves .....70 to 80 drs. a pecul.	Sago..... 2 to 3 ditto.
Canes.....according to quality.	Tortoise-shell .....70 to 80 ditto.

Camphire is also procured here, and is preferred by the Chinese to that of Sumatra. An hundred weight of the camphire of Borneo costs from 2,500 to 3,000 dollars; and one of Sumatra does not exceed 2,000 dollars. Of the Borneo kind about 4,400 lbs. are annually exported.

The duties on imports and exports are 6 per cent. and presents to the principal men are necessary.

From Borneo Town to the northern extreme of the island are several bays and harbours; but from the unfriendly conduct of the natives, they are seldom visited by Europeans. To the eastward of Tanjong Sampanmangio, the northern extreme of Borneo, in latitude 7° 3′ North, is Malloodoo Bay, which stretches inland a great distance to the southward, having regular soundings and good anchorage in most places. This part of the coast abounds with rattans, 10 or 12 feet long, of which a ship load can easily be obtained. It has also plenty of grain, and inland it is very populous.

BALEMBANGAN.

This island is about five leagues N. E. of Tanjong Sampanmangio, the north point of Borneo; its length is about fourteen miles, running in a N. E. and S.W. direction. It has two harbours, called the N. E. and S.W.; the former is the largest, but on the south side it is swampy. At the entrance of the S.W. harbour is great convenience for watering. Fresh water may be conveyed into the lower deck ports of a first rate lying in five fathoms, by means of a hose from a rivulet close by.

The East India Company in 1773 established a small settlement here, with a view of forming an emporium for eastern commodities. They obtained the cession of the island, and a considerable tract of land on the north part of Borneo from the King of Sooloo, under whose dominion it was. Troops and stores were accordingly sent from India, and numbers of Malays and Chinese began to settle here; but in 1775 they were surprised by the Sooloos, who rushed into the place, put the sentries to death, and turned the guns upon the troops, principally Buggesses. The few settlers, recently reduced in number, were fain to make their escape to the vessels in the harbour, and proceed to sea. In 1803 it was again resettled: but the establishment being expensive, without any prospect of real advantage arising from it, it was soon withdrawn. Its situation is, however, well adapted for a commercial intercourse with all the places on the west coast of the China seas, and the surrounding islands.

BANGUEY.

This island is about twenty miles long, having on the N. W. part, near the sea, a high mountain, called Banguey Peak, which is in latitude 7° 19′ North, and longitude 117° 6′ East; it is separated by a channel about a league broad from Balembangan. Ships in want of water, anchor about 1¼ mile off the mouth of a river, with the peak bearing N. N. E. where fresh water may be got with facility; but care must be taken to have the boats properly manned and armed, or they will be liable to the attacks of the roving and piratical Malays who frequent these islands.

PASSIER

Is situated a considerable distance up a river, near the bottom of a large bay on the east side of the island; the entrance is in latitude about 1° 54′ North. The anchorage is with the northern extreme of the land bearing N. ¼ E. and the river's mouth West, distance about nine miles, from whence you see some fishermen's huts on the north side of the river. Let your boat, well manned and armed, leave the ship at low water; steer in west till she is over a flat at the entrance of the river, and then steer for the houses. The fishermen will in all probability endeavour to prevent your going up till they try whether they can purchase for themselves or not. Your boat is not to pay any attention to them, but proceed on. Passier River contains sixteen reaches, and has five other rivers joining it. The first river you leave on your right hand; the next three on your left; and having passed the fifth, which you leave on the right hand, you are within half a mile of Passier, which consists of about 300 houses, built of wood, situated on the north side of the river, most of them inhabited by Buggess merchants. The house, or palace, and fort of the Sultan is on the south side, a short distance from the river.

Passier was formerly a place of considerable trade. About 1772 the East India Company attempted to settle a factory here for the sale of opium, piece-goods, &c. and for the purchase of the many valuable articles brought thither by the Buggesses from Celebes, Sooloo, and other islands. This plan was only frustrated by a commotion amongst the natives, at which the English Commander took an alarm, and quitted the country, much against the wishes of the principal inhabitants, who were anxious to have the English settled amongst them. Since that period Passier has been seldom visited by Europeans, more particularly as several vessels have been cut off by the numerous pirates frequenting this coast and the neighbouring islands. A few Chinese are settled here, who are in possession of the principal part of the trade.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Spanish dollars are the general coin, and goods are bought and sold by the China pecul and catty.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—These are nearly similar to those of the other Malay ports. From India are brought

Cutlery.	Guns, of sizes.	Lace, gold.	Piece-goods.
Cloth.	Iron in bars.	Muskets.	Pistols.
Carpets.	Looking-glasses.	Nails.	Steel.
Gunpowder.	Lead.	Opium.	Telescopes.

The Buggess proas import many articles from the eastward, such as spices, pearl-shells, beech de mer, sago, &c. which are again exported by the Chinese junks.

EXPORTS.—The articles procurable here, and the prices of them, are nearly similar to those at Borneo. You should make the natives bring the articles you wish to purchase on board, in their proas; then exa-

mine them carefully; weigh them, and pay the amount. Your bringing off property in your own boat is a sufficient inducement to the Malays to attempt to cut her off.

No duties are levied on imports or exports; but presents to the Sultan and his principal men, are necessary in proportion to the business transacted.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Bullocks, poultry, and sheep are to be procured here, though not in great abundance. Rice is dear, being, in 1800, 10 Spanish dollars per pecul. They have a great variety of fruits, and fish in abundance.

CAGAYAN SOOLOO

Is an island of considerable size, in latitude 7° North, and longitude 118° 36' East. Ships may anchor in a bay, with the westernmost part of the island W. by S. two miles. The bay is clean, and has a river at the bottom of it, with a bar of coral rocks, about 30 yards in width, and 10 yards over. Within and without it is clear sand, free from rocks, and will admit with safety vessels drawing 15 feet water. This island is dependent on Sooloo, the Rajah being a Datoo there, and is much frequented by proas from Borneo and the neighbouring islands. Supplies of poultry, fruits, and vegetables may be procured. Some trifling presents must be made to the Rajah, who in return sends on board some fowls and fruits.

SOOLOO.

The Sooloo Archipelago consists of an immense number of islands lying in a N. E. and S. W. direction, the principal of which is Sooloo, in latitude 6° 1' North, and longitude 121° 12' East, and to it all the others are subject. This island is of considerable height, extending east and west about 10 leagues. The anchorage is opposite the town of Sooloo, or Soong, in 18 fathoms, the Sultan's house bearing S. 26° East, distance about 1¼ mile. The town is of considerable size; the houses are built after the manner of the Malays, elevated about four feet from the ground with bamboos, of which the floors are also made. The Sultan appears to have but little power, every Datoo, or Chief, being Governor of his own district.

The number of inhabitants on the island of Sooloo is stated to be 60,000, most of them pirates. They have extended their dominion over the neighbouring islands, as well as a considerable portion of the N. E. part of Borneo. To the eastward they are kept in some check by the Spaniards at Samboangan, on Magindanao; yet the vicinity of that settlement does not prevent them from sometimes declaring war against that nation, and disturbing the internal commerce of the Philippine Islands. Every precaution is therefore necessary, more particularly in small vessels, to prevent surprise, as they have very frequently cut off European ships calling here; they likewise cut off the settlement at Balembangan.

The Sooloos state that their island was formerly part of the ancient Borneo empire, founded by the Chinese. The people of Magindanao assert that the Sooloos were once tributary to them. It however appears that the island had been at war with the Spaniards before 1646, as on the 14th of April of that year, peace was concluded between them, at the mediation of the King of Magindanao; upon which the Spaniards withdrew from Sooloo, reserving to themselves the sovereignty of some of the other islands. The Sooloos agreed also to give, in sign of brotherhood, three vessels laden with rice yearly. The Treaty of Munster was concluded in Europe in 1648, by which the navigation of the Spaniards is restrained; for it states "It is further agreed that the Spaniards shall maintain their navigation in the manner it at present is, without being able to extend it further in the East Indies." This is particularly set forth by Mr. Dalrymple; also, that the Sooloos lately made with the Spaniards treaties of alliance, offensive and defensive, as the Spanish Governor declared in a letter written to the English Governor of Manilla. Mr. Dalrymple first made the English acquainted with the Sooloos, and then procured from them, for the East India

Company, a great part of the north end of Borneo, and some islands near it. To that gentleman the English are indebted for the principal part of the information respecting this Archipelago.

At Sooloo and the neighbouring islands is a famous pearl-fishery, which is the source of their wealth, and of their consequence amongst their neighbours, as being a nursery for seamen, ready to man a fleet of proas upon an emergency. The drudges for the pearl oyster are generally made of bamboo, very slight, and sunk with a stone. The large pearls are the property of the Datoos, on whose estates they are found. The Chinese merchants, however, often contrive to purchase from the fishermen pearls of considerable value. They are considered inferior to those produced on the pearl banks at Ceylon, being frequently discoloured, and of irregular shapes; they, however, find a ready sale to the Chinese.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

They have no coin at Sooloo, only a currency which they reckon by sanampoory, cangan, and cowsoong, or nankeen: the first is a term only, and the second a coarse China cotton cloth, which goes in payment of goods, and is reckoned equivalent to a Spanish dollar, a few of which are occasionally met with among them. In small payments they make use of paddy, or rice in the husk, which rises and falls according to the plenty or scarcity of grain. In their accounts they sometimes reckon by Spanish money, but commonly by the cangan and sanampoory, of which the following is the rate:

4 sanampoories, 4 sanampoories } make { 1 cangan of 6 fathoms long. 1 cowsoong of 4 fathoms long.

The cangan was formerly seven fathoms long; but as the Chinese suffered by impositions here, they have debased the manufacture, and contracted the measure, which example the native so well imitate, that it scarce happens a cangan is found six fathoms in length.

The use of paddy as a currency has introduced the custom of measuring instead of weighing grain and some other commodities as cowries, &c.

WEIGHTS.—The Sooloo weights are similar to those of the Chinese; but they have given them other names, and they correspond with the latter in the following manner:

10 moohooks		1 choochock		1 candareen.
10 choochocks		1 ammas		1 mace.
10 ammas		1 tale		1 tale.
16 tales	make	1 catty	equal to	1 catty.
5 catties		1 booboot		5 catties.
10 booboots		1 lacksa		50 catties.
2 lacksas		1 pecul		1 pecul.

The weights in some of the islands are heavier than the standard; however, as an implicit confidence is not to be placed in their dotchins, it will be necessary to compare them with English weights.

MEASURES.—Their smallest grain measure is a half cocoa-nut shell, called a panching.

8 panchings, 10 gantangs, 2½ ragas } make { 1 gantang. 1 raga. 1 pecul.

The gantang of rice is reckoned to weigh four catties, according to which 2½ ragas make 1 China pecul of 133⅓ lbs. and also 1 cawan of Manilla.

The measure for cloth is the fathom, but the Chinese covid is in common use.

IMPORTS.

Country ships from India occasionally visit Sooloo, notwithstanding the danger they run of being cut off. They import the under-mentioned articles, which generally find a ready sale to a small extent:

Brasiery.	Guns of sizes.	Opium.	Tin ware.
Cutlery.	Hardware.	Piece-goods.	Tobacco.
Cloth.	Iron in bars.	Saltpetre.	Sugar.
Gunpowder.	Ironmongery.	Shot of all sorts.	Vermillion.
Glass-ware.	Looking glasses.	Swords.	Watches.

The China junks import the under-mentioned articles for trade to the neighbouring islands, and for the use of the Chinese resident here; but the Spaniards do not permit them to pass between Samboangan and Basselan, an island belonging to Sooloo.

Brass salvers.	Dried fruits.	Kompow, white.	Steel.
Brass wire.	Drugs.	Lackered ware.	Sugar candy.
Beads of sorts.	Fireworks.	Paper.	Tea of kinds.
China-ware.	Furniture.	Quallis.	Tutenague.
Cloths.	Iron.	Raw silk.	Wines.
Cangans.	Kowsongs, black.	Silk piece-goods.	Wearing apparel.

The Portuguese used formerly to carry on a considerable trade here, but from the dangers attending it, they have of late years entirely relinquished it to the Chinese.

EXPORTS.

Mr. Dalrymple, who surveyed these Islands, states that in 1761 an agreement was made with the Sultan for a cargo of goods from India, which were to have been received at 100 per cent. on the invoice price there, and the Sooloo goods received in return, were to yield 100 per cent. on the Sooloo prices when sold in China; all deficiencies to be made good by the Sooloos, and all surplus accounted for to them. This experiment was meant to ascertain the actual value in China, and might have led to important consequences, had the measure been followed up. He divided the produce of the islands under four heads, viz.

First Class.—Articles of value, but such as are either in no great abundance, or occupy little space.

Ambergris is frequently to be had.	Gum anime, or copal, in considerable quantities.
Birds' nests in great plenty.	Lac, a little only.
Civet, small quantities only.	Pearls, many of the finest water.
Camphire, in great abundance on Borneo.	Tortoise-shell, in great abundance.
Gold, extremely fine and plentiful.	Wax in small quantities.

Second Class.—Staples, which must form the cargoes of ships frequenting the place.

Agal agal.	Canes.	Ebony.	Shark-fins.
Beetle nut.	Cowries.	Kemoo shells.	Sago.
Beech de mer.	Dammer.	Rattans.	Sea-weed.

THIRD CLASS.—Goods which may hereafter become staples, but being in no demand, are at present in small quantities:

Cinnamon.	Coffee.	Pepper.	Sapan-wood.
Clove bark.	Dying woods.	Rice.	Sugar.
Cocos.	Ginger.	Red-wood.	Sandal-wood.
Cotton.	Indigo.	Saltpetre.	Wheat.

FOURTH CLASS.—Productions which may be useful, but can scarcely be reckoned articles of trade. Timber of various kinds, fit for ship-building and all other uses, in any quantity, *viz.*

Blackwood.	Poon.	Bintangol.	Palomaria.
Mahogany.	Malawee.	Calaotil.	Banaba, &c.

with several other commodities, such as cocoa-nut oil, earth oil, gumatty, honey, wood oil, &c.

The cargoes of the Chinese junks, homeward bound, consist of the under-mentioned articles:

Agal agal.	Clove bark.	Mother o'pearl shells	Shells.
Beech de mer.	Cassia.	Pearls.	Pepper.
Birds' nests.	Camphire.	Rattans.	Tortoise-shell.
Blackwood.	Gold.	Sago.	Wax.

The Buggesses also trade here, bringing chiefly the cotton manufactures of Celebes; the principal traffic is in slaves.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Bullocks and all other kinds of refreshments, except rice, are to be procured here, and reasonable, chiefly in barter for cloth, cutlery, small looking-glasses, &c. The water is good and plentiful. When bullocks are purchased for money, they cost from six to eight Spanish dollars each. Green turtle may be had in great abundance, and for a mere trifle. Yams and sweet potatoes are plentiful; and of fruits they have oranges, equally as good as those of China; jacks, mangoes, guavas, mangosteens, &c.

BASSELAN.

This island is high and mountainous; its eastern extremity is in latitude 6° 30′ North, and longitude 122° 30′ East; it is separated from the Island of Magindanao by a channel called the Strait of Basselan.

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

This Archipelago consists of an immense number of islands of various sizes, on many of which the Spaniards have establishments; the principal of those frequented by the English are Magindanao, or Mindano, and Luconia, or Manilla.

MAGINDANAO.

This island is of a triangular form, having three remarkable promontories, one near Samboangan, in latitude 6° 43 North, and longitude 122° 14′ East, where the Spaniards have their principal settlement to the westward; Cape Augustine to the S. E. in latitude 6° 4′ North, and longitude 126° 48′ East; and Suligow to the northward. The island may be divided into three parts: the first under the Sultan, who resides at the town of Mindano, or Selangan, by far the largest and most ancient; the second is under

PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
AND PART OF THE
CHINA SEA
CHINA SEA
LIQUEJO ISLANDS
PATCHOU ISLANDS
FORMOSA
CANTON
PARACELS
LUCONIA
PHILIPPINE ISLANDS
MINDANAO
BORNEO
Palawan
Pulillu
Bay of Manilla
C. Engano
Bashee I.
Babuyanes I.
Palaos
130
120
110
30
20
10

the Spaniards, comprehending a large portion of the sea-coast; and the third is under the Illano Sultans, a sort of feudal Chiefs.

The town of Magindanao, in latitude 7° 10′ North, and longitude about 124° 35′ East, stands about six miles from the bar of the River Pelangy, on the right hand going up, just where the Melampy joins it. The Pelangy is then about the width of the Thames at London Bridge. The Melampy is about half as broad; and as you go up, it strikes off to the right, whilst the Pelangy on the left retains its breadth for many miles. A branch of the Pelangy, called Tamantakka, discharges itself into the sea about three miles to the southward of the Pelangy, which has three fathoms on its bar at high water in spring tides, while that of the Pelangy has only two fathoms.

The town of Magindanao, that properly goes by that name, consists at present of scarcely more than 20 houses; they stand close to, and just above where a little creek, about 18 feet broad, called the River Magindanao, runs into the Pelangy. Close to the River Magindanao, and opposite the few houses making the town of that name, stands the town of Selangan, which may be said to make one town with the other, as communicating with it by several bridges over the river. It extends about one mile down the south side of the Pelangy, forming a decent street for one half of the distance, and containing about 200 houses. The fortified palace of the Sultan, and the strong wooden castles of the Datoos, take up one side of the river; the other is occupied by individuals.

On the point of land where the Melampy runs into the Pelangy is a fort, called Coto Intang (Diamond Fort) and also a town. The fort is on the extreme point of land, in extent about six miles, nearly square, strongly pallisadoed with round trees, 25 feet high. This fort commands both rivers, is nearly square, and has many cannon mounted, and a great number of brass swivel guns.

From the gate which is on the middle of that side of the fort next the land, and which is nearly perpendicular to both rivers, leads a broad and straight street for the distance of above half a mile. It is so well raised as never to be overflowed, and is moated on both sides. At the end of this street a canal is cut from river to river, which bounds the town. On the side next the Pelangy dwell many Chinese families, mostly carpenters, arrack distillers, and millers. On that side next the Melampy live a few Chinese, but many Magindanao merchants and vessel builders. They build vessels of various dimensions, and employ them in trading from one port to the other, or in cruising among the Philippine Islands for slaves and plunder.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

The currency in most parts of the country, as in Sooloo, is the Chinese kangan, a piece of coarse cloth, thinly woven, 19 inches broad and six yards long; the value at Sooloo is 10 dollars for a bundle of 25, sealed up, and at Magindanao much the same; but here Spanish dollars are scarce. These bundles are called gandangs rolled up in a cylindrical form. They have also as a currency cousongs, a kind of nankeen, dyed black, and kompow, a strong white Chinese linen, made of flax.

In the bazar, or market, the immediate currency is paly: 10 gantangs, of about 4 lbs. each, make 1 battell, and 3 battells (a cylindrical measure 13$\frac{1}{2}$ inches high, the same in diameter) about 120 lbs. are commonly sold for a kangan. Speaking of the value of things here and at Sooloo, they say such a horse, proa, &c. is worth so many slaves, the old valuation being one slave for 30 kangans.

China cash is in use here, their price from 160 to 180 for a kangan. In making bargains, it should be specified whether is meant real or nominal kangan; the dealing in the nominal or imaginary kangan is an ideal barter. When dealing in real kangans, they must be examined, and the gandangs, or bundles of 25 pieces, are not to be trusted, as the dealers will often forge a seal, having first packed up damaged kangans; at this the Chinese here and at Sooloo are very expert.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—The Spaniards at Samboangan having prevented the China junks bound from Amoy to Magindanao from passing, there is but little trade, as no vessels sail from India regularly for this place; and the little trade carried on, is principally confined to the country Chinese and a few Sooloo men, who come hither to purchase rice, &c. bringing with them China articles, such as are enumerated at Sooloo.

All kinds of India piece-goods answer well here, especially ordinary long cloth, white, blue, and red; handkerchiefs of all kinds; chintz, principally dark grounds; Surat goods of most sorts; and all kinds of European cutlery and iron.

EXPORTS.—The under-mentioned articles are to be procured here, though not in considerable quantities.

Birds' nests.	Gold-dust.	Rattans.	Tortoise-shell.
Cassia.	Pepper.	Sago.	Wax.

and several kinds of wood. Precious stones may likewise be procured, but it requires great care to prevent impositions. In exchange, one pecul of wax is the usual exchange for two peculs of iron. Presents are necessary to the Sultan and principal men, according to the business transacted.

SAMBOANGAN.

The Spaniards are in possession of a considerable part of the south coast of the island, the principal place in which is Samboangan, in latitude 6° 43′ North, and longitude 122° 14′ East. Here is a strong fort, situated close to the sea, built of masonry, having a high wall. It is not very capacious, the church and many of the houses being without the walls; but the cannon of the fort commands them, and can so far oppose any approach that may be made that way by an enemy. There is also a plain of some extent towards the land. A swamp also on one side of the fort adds to its strength. The garrison consists of about 50 American Spaniards, a few native Spaniards, and about 100 of the natives of the Philippines. Their pay is about two dollars per month; but provisions are reasonable, though not so abundant as in some of the neighbouring islands. The Spaniards transport convicts from Manilla to Samboangan.

The anchorage in the road is with the church E. ¼ N. about half a mile from the shore. The channel between this point and Basselan being narrow, the Spaniards prevent Chinese junks passing this way.

MANILLA.

This city, which is the capital of the Philippine Islands, and the principal settlement belonging to the Spaniards in the East Indies, is situated in latitude 14° 36′ North, and longitude 120° 52′ East, in a large bay, on the west side of the Island of Luconia, the largest of the Archipelago. The city stands on the banks of a river, which is navigable for small vessels a considerable distance inland. It is about two miles in compass, and in length about half a mile; the shape is irregular, being narrow at both ends, and wide in the middle. It has six gates; the wall to the southward, next Cavite, is strengthened by several towers; on the angle next the land is a large bastion, called the Foundry; and beyond it another nearly equal to it, between which is Puerto Real, or the Royal Gate, well furnished with brass cannon and good outworks. Farther on is the gate of Parian, over which is a battery of cannon; and still farther by the river's side, is St. Dominic's bastion, and then the castle, which terminates the city, washed on the south by the sea, and on the north and east by the river, over which there are drawbridges to enter at the Royal Gate and at that of Parian. The houses are generally built of wood, in consequence of the frequent earthquakes. The streets are broad, and there are a vast number of public buildings, churches, convents, &c. Over the bridge, adjoining Parian, are the suburbs where the Chinese reside.

Small vessels generally anchor in Manilla road in five fathoms, the north bastion bearing N. 37° E. the fishing stakes at the river's mouth N. 18° E. distant about a mile; but large ships anchor at Cavite, where is a good harbour, well sheltered from W. and S. W. winds.

Cavite, the port and marine arsenal of Manilla, is about three leagues to the southward; it stands on a long narrow neck of land, on one side of which is the sea, and on the other the bay that forms the port. It is defended by the Castle of St. Philip, which is by much the best fortress in the island, being a regular square, with four good bastions well supplied with cannon. On the same point stands the arsenal, where the galleons and other vessels are built, and for which service there are from 300 to 500 people constantly employed. The town, which is of considerable size, is in a state of decay. There are two parishes, and three convents for men. The Jesuits formerly possessed a very handsome house here, which at present is in the hands of the Philippine Company.

These islands were discovered in the year 1521 by Ferdinand Magellan, a Portuguese navigator, who had served his native country; but finding himself neglected by his Government, he left Lisbon in disgust, and offered his services to Charles V. then Emperor of Germany and King of Spain, whom he convinced of the probability of discovering a way to the Spice Islands by sailing to the westward; whereupon the command of a squadron being given him, he set sail from Seville on the 10th of August, 1519, and standing over to the coast of South America, proceeded southward to the latitude of 52° South, where he fortunately hit upon a strait, since called the Strait of Magellan, which carried him into the South Sea, and then steering northward, repassed the equator; after which he stretched away to the west, across that vast ocean, till he arrived at Guam, one of the Ladrones, on the 10th of March, 1521. He soon after sailed to the westward, and discovered the Philippines, which was on St. Lazarus's day; and in honour of that Saint, he called them the Archipelago of St. Lazarus. He took possession of them in the name of the King of Spain; but was afterwards unfortunately killed in a skirmish with the natives of one of them. His people, however, arrived afterwards at the Moluccas, where they left a colony, and returned to Spain by way of the Cape of Good Hope, being the first persons who ever sailed round the globe. The Spaniards made no attempt to subdue, or plant settlements in these islands until 1564, when the Viceroy of Mexico sent a fleet, and a force sufficient to make a conquest of them, which he named the Philippines, in honour of Philip II. then upon the throne of Spain. The first settlement made in the islands was in Zebu, where the Spaniards built a fort, and from thence proceeded to the other islands. In 1571 they founded the City of Manilla, which became the capital of the whole Archipelago.

Manilla was taken by the English in 1762; the fleet was under Admiral Cornish, and the land forces under Colonel Draper. They arrived in the bay on the 23d of September, where they found their visit was unexpected, and the Spaniards unprepared. On the morning of the 24th an ineffectual summons was sent to the town; the troops and stores were then landed, and the city invested. On the 4th of October the batteries were opened, and the following day a practicable breach was effected. On the 6th, at daylight, the storming party mounted the breach, and got possession of all the bastions. The Governor and principal officers retired to the citadel, and were glad to surrender as prisoners at discretion, as that place was in no good posture of defence. They were admitted as prisoners of war upon their parole of honour; and to conciliate the affections of the natives, all the Indians were dismissed in safety. In consequence of the terms dictated to the Spaniards, the port of Cavite and citadel, with several large ships, and an immense quantity of warlike and naval stores, were surrendered to the English. The ordnance found in the town and citadel of Manilla consisted of 320 pieces of brass, and 123 pieces of iron cannon; and at Cavite of 138 brass, and 92 pieces of iron, making in the whole 673 pieces, exclusive of mortars, howitzers, and an abundance of other ammunition. The loss sustained by the English did not exceed 30 killed, and as many wounded.

The English commanders being desirous of saving so fine a city from destruction, made a proposal of ransoming it upon the following conditions; but several hours elapsed before the principal magistrates could be brought to a conference, during which interval the troops committed some excesses.

I. The Spanish officers of every rank shall be esteemed as prisoners of war, upon their parole of honour, but shall have the liberty of wearing their swords. The rest of the troops of every degree and quality must be disarmed, and disposed of as we shall think proper. They shall be treated with humanity.

II. All the military stores and magazines of every kind must be surrendered faithfully to our commissaries, and nothing secreted or damaged.

III. His Excellency the Governor must send immediate orders to the Fort of Cavite, and the other forts under his command, and dependent upon Manilla, to surrender to His Britannic Majesty.

IV. The propositions contained in a paper delivered on the part of His Excellency the Governor and his Council, will be listened to, and confirmed to them, upon the payment of 4,000,000 dollars: the half to be paid immediately; the other half to be paid in a time to be agreed upon, and hostages and securities given for that purpose.

V. All the islands subordinate to Luconia and Manilla, its capital, and which are at present under the dominion of His Catholic Majesty, must be ceded to his Britannic Majesty, who must be acknowledged Sovereign till the fate of these islands is decided by a peace between the two Kings. Their religion, goods, liberties, properties, and commerce shall be preserved to the inhabitants of those islands who are subjects of Spain, in as ample a manner as they are confirmed to the inhabitants of Manilla and the Island of Luconia. All the Governors and military shall be allowed the honours of war, but give their parole, as the officers have done at Manilla and Cavite, not to serve or take up arms against His Britannic Majesty.

These terms were readily embraced by the Governor and chief magistrates, and bills granted for the ransom; but the Spaniards ungenerously evaded their payment, and acted on the most dishonourable terms, using as an argument for refusing payment, that the General suffered the city to be pillaged for forty hours. This the English commanders positively contradicted; however, the seamen and soldiers were deprived of the reward due to their valour; and they would have derived nothing but barren laurels from the capture, had not two frigates which were detached by the Admiral, captured a galleon, bound from Manilla to Acapulco, worth near 3,000,000 dollars.

In 1796, England being at war with Spain, an expedition was fitted out from the British settlements in India against Manilla, which proceeded as far as the Straits of Malacca; but the suspicious conduct of some of the native powers compelled them to abandon the enterprise, and return to India; since which period no attempt has been made to disturb the settlement.

On the news of the invasion of Spain by the French, and the union of the English with the Spaniards, with a view of expelling them, having reached Manilla, the English were admitted upon the most liberal terms, and a considerable trade is at present carried on from the British settlements.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

COINS.—Accounts are kept in dollars or pesoes, or pieces of eight, rials, and mervadies, reckoning 8 rials to 1 dollar, and 34 mervadies to 1 rial. The course of exchange between Bengal and Manilla is generally from 38 to 45 Spanish dollars per 100 current rupees.

WEIGHTS.—The Chinese pecul is commonly used in buying and selling all sorts of merchandise; the quintal is 4 arobas, or 100 lbs. each pound 2 marks or 16 ounces, and each ounce 8 drams.

MEASURES.—The Spanish foot is about 11¼ English inches; it is divided into 12 pulgadas, or inches, each inch 12 lines. The vara, or measure for cloth, is 3 feet or 4 palmos, equal to 33¾ inches.

COMMERCE WITH THE BRITISH SETTLEMENTS.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Manilla from the British settlements in India, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Manilla to the British settlements during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO MANILLA.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	8,57,663	——	8,57,663
1803	2,81,589	——	2,81,589
1804	3,10,407	——	3,10,407
1805	9,84,956	——	9,84,956
1806	4,25,207	——	4,25,207
Total.	28,59,822	——	28,59,822

EXPORTS FROM MANILLA.

Years.	Merchandise. Sicca Rupees.	Treasure. Sicca Rupees.	Total. Sicca Rupees.
1802	1,93,987	26,34,190	28,28,177
1803	40,969	5,53,153	5,94,122
1804	6,831	4,21,119	4,27,950
1805	1,21,776	10,89,407	12,11,183
1806	300	1,01,832	1,02,132
Total.	3,63,863	47,99,701	51,63,564

Articles of Import in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees	9,15,796
Opium		27,661
Silk		5,627
Sundries		31,066
Imports re-exported, viz.		
Iron and nails		3,646
Glass-ware		318
Sundries		842
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	9,84,956

Articles of Export in 1805.

Nankeen	Sicca Rupees	8,167
Sapan-wood		34,815
Tutenague		68,046
Sundries		10,748
Treasure		10,89,407
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees	12,11,183

Merchandise imported into Manilla from the British settlements of Bengal and Fort St. George in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive	Sicca Rupees	28,59,822
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto		3,63,863
Imports exceed the exports		24,95,959
Treasure exported from Manilla during the above period		47,99,701
Balance *against* Manilla in five years	Sicca Rupees	72,95,660

Manilla produces indigo, which is of an inferior quality to that manufactured at Bengal. The tobacco is excellent, and esteemed the best in Asia, and used formerly to be exported in considerable quantities. Sugar is produced in abundance, and was also an article of export to India. The East India Company's ships bound to China have occasionally stopped at Manilla; and when they have arrived in August or September, considerable quantities of specie have been sent by them, which would otherwise have been sent on China junks.

The following sorts of Madras piece-goods are suitable to the Manilla and Acapulco markets.

1000 pieces blue handkerchiefs .....40 to 60 pagodas per corge.
200 ditto red ditto.....55 to 60 ditto.
200 ditto blue Cambays .....55 to 60 ditto.
100 ditto cambric .....22 to 25 ditto.
200 ditto bordered handkerchiefs.....25 to 30 ditto.
4 bales coarse pulicat handkerchiefs .....24 to 27 ditto.
4 ditto handkerchiefs, English pattern.....18 to 21 ditto.
100 pieces Cambays .....55 to 60 ditto.

Considerable quantities of punjum cloths are supplied from Madras by contract, at the following prices:

12 punjum cloth .....175 dollars per corge.
14 ditto.....200 ditto.
16 punjum cloth .....227 dollars per corge.
18 ditto.....275 ditto.

And Ventapollam handkerchiefs of 18 punjums, at 80 dollars per corge.

The following sorts of Bengal piece-goods are suitable to the Manilla and Acapulco markets, with the cost and sale prices per corge.

30 bales Luckipore baftas.....24 by 2 of various qualities.
30 ditto Jugdea ditto .....24 by 2 ditto.
30 ditto Chittabooloo baftas .....24 by 2 ..... at 50 to 75 rupees 50 to 55 dollars.
30 ditto Calandia ditto.....24 by 2 .....50 to 75 .....50 to 55 ditto.
25 ditto Luckipore cossas.....40 by 2 .....75 to 100 .....80 to 85 ditto.
4 ditto Terrindams .....40 by 2¼ ..... 8 to 12 ..... 9 to 10 ditto.
2 ditto ditto .....40 by 2¼.....15 to 18 .....14 to 16 ditto.
6 ditto Dacca Selly doreas.....20 by 2¼.....60 to 65 .....55 to 60 ditto.
5 ditto Conder chareonnahs.....20 by 2 .....60 to 70 .....50 to 55 ditto.
2 ditto tanjebs .....40 by 2 .....12 to 15 .....12 to 14 ditto.
The above to contain each 100 pieces.
2 bales Dacca & Santipore white hdfs. 10 in a piece..60 to 80 .....60 to 70 ditto.
These bales to contain each 200 pieces.
30 bales Beerboom cossas .....40 by 2¼.....70 to 90 .....70 to 75 ditto.
30 ditto gurrahs.....36 by 2¼.....55 to 70 .....60 to 62 ditto.
50 ditto Patna cossas.....40 by 2¼.....65 to 70 .....60 to 65 ditto.
50 ditto gurrahs.....36 by 2¼.....60 to 70 .....60 to 65 ditto.
50 ditto tanda doreas charconnas ....36 by 1¼.....45 to 50 .....40 to 42 ditto.
100 ditto cossas mamoodies.....40 by 2¼.....75 to 100 .....75 to 80 ditto.
These bales are each to contain 100 pieces.
10 bales Bengal blue cambays.....40 to 45 .....40 to 45 ditto.
100 ditto blue handkerchiefs, 10 in a piece.....40 to 45 .....40 to 45 ditto.
The above to be 200 pieces in each bale.
50 pieces white Santipore handkerchiefs, 10 in a piece.. 8 to 10 ..... 7 to 8 ditto.
25 ditto alliballies and bootadas .....20 by 2 .....16 to 20 .....16 to 18 ditto.
5 ditto gold flowered muslin .....20 by 2 .....50 to 60 .....45 to 50 ditto.
50 ditto fine neckcloths..... 6 to 8 ..... 6 to 7 ditto.

COMMERCE WITH CHINA.

Junks come from several parts of the empire, bringing various articles for the consumption of the numerous resident Chinese, and silk goods, lackered ware, teas, china-ware, &c. for the Acapulco ships. Their returns are principally dollars, some cochineal, and black-wood, which is here in abundance.

COMMERCE WITH SOUTH AMERICA.

The inhabitants of Manilla have been long in possession of a right to send two vessels, called galleons, to Acapulco, for which they pay a large sum to the Crown; of these, one ought to be a ship of trade, the other of force. These ships are of different sizes, from 1,200 to 1,500 tons each; but of whatever size they are, the merchandise ought to consist of 1,500 equal bales, a great proportion of which belongs to the convents, that is to say, they have a right to send a certain number of these bales, which they commonly sell to the merchants; and in case they want money to provide a cargo, the convents furnish them with it upon bottomry. The cargoes consist in part of the commodities and manufactures of the Philippine Islands; but the great bulk is foreign commodities, such as piece-goods, China-ware, raw and wrought silks, spices, toys, &c. The ship is accounted the King's, from her being put into commission, and is manned and officered accordingly. The Commander in Chief has the title of General, and has a Captain under him, who is said to make 40,000 dollars by the voyage; the pilot about 20,000, and each of his mates about half that sum. Those that go in quality of factors, have 9 per cent. upon the goods they sell, and every seaman receives 350 dollars for his voyage out and home, which is performed within a year, of which 75 dollars are advanced when he embarks at Cavite, and the remainder on his return. They generally sail about the middle of July, and reach Acapulco in January, and commonly meet the homeward-bound ships upon the coast of the Philippines.

The returns from South America to Manilla consist of cochineal, sweetmeats, Spanish wines, millinery, and various European commodities, but to no very considerable amount, the principal part being silver, of which about 1,500,000 dollars are annually imported.

These ships have always been an object of attention to the English in war time. Captain Cavendish took an outward-bound ship as she was going into the port of Acapulco, November 4, 1587. In December, 1709, one of the outward-bound annual ships was taken near Acapulco by Commodore Rogers; and on the 29th of June, 1743, an homeward-bound Manilla ship, called the Nostra Signora de Cabadonga, was taken by Commodore Anson; she had on board 1,313,843 dollars, and 35,682 ounces of virgin silver, besides cochineal and other commodities; and on the 30th of October, 1762, the Santissima Trinidada was taken, bound from Manilla to Acapulco, reputed to be worth 3,000,000 dollars.

RISE AND PROGRESS

OF THE

COMMERCE OF THE SPANIARDS WITH THE EAST INDIES.

The discoveries made by the Portuguese soon raised the emulation of their neighbours, the Spaniards, who accepted the services of Christopher Columbus, a Genoese, who had made a proposition for discovering certain countries by sailing West from the Coast of Spain, and furnished him with the means of putting the design in execution; in consequence of which, he embarked on Friday, August 3d, 1492, and after discovering America, returned to Europe.

The King of Spain, on his return, made application to the Court of Rome, to have his title to these new-found countries, and such others as might be discovered, confirmed and secured. Upon this application, the Pope consented to bestow on his Catholic Majesty the sovereign dominion of the Indies, with supreme jurisdiction over all that hemisphere; and accordingly a bull was passed in the usual form on the 2d of May, 1493, with all the same formalities, prerogatives, and powers that had been before granted to the Kings of Portugal in relation to the East Indies, Guinea, and part of Africa; and by another bull of the 3d of May, he granted them all the islands and continent already discovered, or that should be discovered, drawing a line from pole to pole, at the distance of 100 leagues to the westward of the islands of Azores, and those of Cape Verd; and that all that should be discovered beyond that line to the West or South, should appertain to the navigation and discovery of the Kings of Spain, provided it were not in the possession of any Christian Prince before Christmas Day; and that no person should pass over into those parts under penalties and censures.

These bulls, which were intended to put an end to all disputes between the two Crowns, were so far from having that effect, that they heightened the animosities which were existing between them. It was at length agreed that commissioners should be appointed to settle the matter. After many conferences, they agreed on the 7th of June, 1493, that the line for settling the boundaries should be drawn 270 leagues farther than that mentioned in the Pope's bull, from the islands of Cape Verd westward; and that all beyond that meridian westward, should belong to Spain, and all to the eastward to Portugal; likewise, that whatsoever should be discovered before the 20th day of the said month of June, within the first 250 of the said 370 leagues, should remain to Portugal, and whatsoever should be discovered within the other 120 leagues, should appertain to Spain for ever.

1519. Ferdinand Magellan, who had formerly been in the service of Portugal, persuaded the Emperor Charles V. that the Molucca Islands, which had been discovered by the Portuguese, were within the limits assigned to him by the Pope; whereupon an expedition was fitted out from Spain, under the command of Magellan, who had undertaken to find certain islands within the limits assigned to Spain, from whence spices might be brought; and also to find a passage to and from those islands, without violating the rights of the Portuguese; in consequence, his Imperial Majesty stipulated that he should have an exclusive trade thither for ten years, and a twentieth part of the profits for ever. The squadron, which consisted of five vessels, sailed from Seville August 10, 1519; and after experiencing great difficulties, passed through the Straits which bear his name, and arrived at length at the Philippine Islands, where he was unfortunately killed in an action with some of the natives on the 27th of April, 1521. Only one of his ships returned to Spain, being the first vessel that ever sailed round the globe.

1529. The King of Portugal, who had hitherto considered the navigation and commerce of the Eastern Seas his own property, remonstrated against this invasion of his right; but not being willing to provoke the King of Spain, who was now also Sovereign of the Netherlands, and Emperor of Germany, a treaty was instantly set on foot for the amicable discussion of their titles, but the commissioners separated without coming to any conclusion. The King of Spain, however, under pretence of not wishing to disturb the peace of the countries, concluded an agreement August 22, 1529, by which, in consideration of the sum of 350,000 ducats, to be paid at certain periods stipulated, he consented to mortgage his title, and to appoint commissioners for re-examining these affairs, with a proviso that he should be at liberty to act, whatever their decision might be, till he had repaid that sum. The Spaniards, who conceived their monarch had sacrificed their interests in this arrangement, offered an expedient, which, according to their notions, might reconcile his private and public interests, which was, that the Parliament of Castile should pay the money advanced by the King of Portugal, for which the Emperor should make

them a grant of the Moluccas for six years, during which the staple for spices should be fixed at Corunna, and after the expiration of that term, the Emperor should be again at full liberty to dispose of that trade as he pleased; but his Imperial Majesty, from some particular reasons, rejected the proposal.

The Portuguese remained in undisturbed possession of the Moluccas till their union with Spain in 1580, after which they were exposed to the hostilities of the Dutch, who succeeded in ultimately expelling them. The Spaniards carried on their trade under the Portuguese flag by the way of the Cape of Good Hope till Portugal again became independent in 1640, from which period, for near a century, the Spaniards confined themselves to the trade between the west coast of America and the Philippine Islands, in compliance with the Treaty of Munster, concluded in 1648, by which it was agreed between Spain and Holland, that neither of them should use the East India trade in any other manner than was then practised—the Dutch by the way of the Cape of Good Hope, and the Spaniards from their settlements in America.

1733. In this year the King of Spain granted a charter to a body of merchants, under the name of "The Royal Company of the Philippine Islands," vesting in them, during a period of twenty years, the exclusive privilege of trading to both sides of Africa, and to all the countries beyond the Cape of Good Hope. The following are the most important articles of the charter:

They may carry the royal colours upon their ships, which are exempted from all duties, in the same manner as if they actually belonged to the Royal Navy; their officers also being on a footing of equality with those of the navy.

They may export bullion without payment of duty.

The Company are to pay at Cadiz a duty of 8 per cent. on spiceries, and 5 per cent. on all other species of goods imported by them.

The capital to consist of 4000 shares of 1000 dollars each, to be subscribed at Cadiz.

The business of the Company to be conducted by nine directors appointed by the King, each of them possessing twenty-five shares in the Company's stock.

The King subscribes for 400 shares.

Notwithstanding the readiness with which this charter was granted, it does not appear that it was ever acted upon, but that the trade remained in the same channel in which it had formerly been carried on.

1764. After the failure of the scheme of prosecuting a trade with India from Spain by the Cape of Good Hope, there was no farther attempt made till this year, when the King's ship, Buen Consejo, sailed from Cadiz, and passing round the Cape, arrived safe at Manilla, from whence she returned to Spain in 1766, with a valuable cargo of oriental produce. Several more voyages were made by the same route, the last of which was completed in 1784.

1785. The privileges of the Royal Caraccas Company of Spain being at a close, it was thought a favourable opportunity of uniting the commerce of Asia and America with that of Europe. This plan was approved of by the King, who granted a charter, under the title of "The Royal Company of the Philippines," on the 10th of May, 1785, of which the following are the principal articles:

The Company is established for twenty-five years, reckoning from the 1st of July, 1785.

The capital to consist of 8,000,000 pesos sencillos (each about 3s. 4d. sterling) divided into 32,000 shares of 250 pesos each, to which all persons of whatsoever description are admitted to subscribe.

The King subscribes 1,000,000 dollars, exclusive of his stock in the Caraccas Company.

The Caraccas Company to be incorporated into the Philippine Company, and all their property of every kind to be brought into the capital stock at a fair valuation.

3000 shares reserved for the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands, to be subscribed for within two years.

The shares transferrable by indorsement, and at such prices as the parties may agree for.

The Company not to borrow money upon interest, but may raise an additional sum by subscription.

A statement of the Company's affairs shall be printed every year for the satisfaction of all concerned.

During the term of the Company's privilege, no Spanish vessel, except those of the Royal Navy and the Company, shall be permitted to sail to the Philippine Islands, or any part of the East Indies; and no other ships than those of the Company shall be allowed to sail direct from Spain to the ports of South America, the Philippine Islands, or India.

The Company's ships may sail direct by the Cape of Good Hope, or they may call at Buenos Ayres; but as the principal advantage of the Company, as well as the State, consists in uniting the commerce of America with that of Asia, the King recommends to them to send their ships rather by Cape Horn.

All merchandise, the produce of Spain or Spanish America, is exempted from customs, and foreign merchandise shipped on board the Company's ships in Spain, shall pay 2 per cent. ad valorem.

In order to enable the Company to obtain with facility the oriental commodities necessary for their trade, Manilla is declared a free port, during the term of the Charter, to all nations truly belonging to Asia, for the importation of their produce; and they may carry home in return either silver, European, American, or Philippine commodities, paying a duty of 3 per cent. on silver, 2½ on foreign goods, and all productions of the Spanish dominions to pass free.

The Company's business to be conducted by a Junta of Direction, authorized by the King, and consisting of twelve Directors, who shall meet weekly for the dispatch of business.

Many public bodies in Spain and America subscribed to the capital stock, and advanced money to the Company upon interest; but they never performed any thing of importance.

1790. The King of Spain by a royal grant, dated August 15, 1789, gave permission to all European vessels to import into Manilla every kind of Asiatic merchandise, but no European goods, and to receive in return the merchandise of Spain, Spanish America, and the Philippines, and any foreign goods imported by the Company, as well as silver. This permission was to continue three years, reckoning from September, 1790.

1796. The war which took place in Europe, deranged the commerce of the Philippine Company; but their ships escaped capture, and generally arrived safe. The profits of their cargoes enabled the Company to pay off the money they had borrowed, and to make some occasional dividends to the proprietors.

1803. In this year King Charles IV. granted the Company a new charter, of which the following are the principal clauses. The terms of their privilege are extended to July 1, 1825.

The capital stock to consist of 12,500,000 pesos, in shares of 250 pesos each.

The King makes up his property in the Company's capital stock to 3,943,250 pesos.

Foreigners may hold stock, and dispose of it, even if their Sovereigns be at war with Spain.

Twenty shares entitle the holder to a vote, and no person can have more than one vote, but corporate bodies may.

The Company and their servants are prohibited from having any concern in the trade of the Acapulco ship; except that they may ship indigo and other produce of the islands for Acapulco, paying freight at the rate of 9 pesos for every quintal, and they may receive American produce in return, for which they shall also have freight in the ship.

The Company are not to interfere with the interior commerce of the islands, nor in the commerce of the inhabitants with any part of Asia.

The port of Manilla is declared free to all the nations of Asia and Europe, but only for the importation of Asiatic merchandise; and they may take in return every article of Philippine produce, except

cotton, the exportation of which is reserved to the Company and the inhabitants of the islands; they may also receive foreign goods imported by the Company, and silver; the Philippine produce and foreign goods being exempted from duty on exportation, and the silver paying 3 per cent.

The Asiatic goods, on being carried into the interior of Spain, to pay the same duties as Spanish merchandise. Tea, and other oriental merchandise may be exported from Spain by the Company, or by others, without paying any duty on exportation.

The Company's ships may sail from India or China direct for Spain, without stopping at Manilla.

The Company may establish factories on any part of the continent of Asia.

In order to prevent the King's subjects from being disappointed of a proper supply of merchandise, which cannot easily be sent from Spain in time of war, and to open to the Company a channel for continuing their commercial operations, they are authorized to send every year, during war, all kinds of merchandise of the Philippine Islands and Asia in general, to the value of 500,000 dollars from Manilla to Lima, Buenos Ayes, and other parts of South America, for which they shall pay no duty in Manilla, and shall pay 13 per cent. at Lima on the cost of the Asiatic goods, but nothing on those of the Philippines; and they may carry back the returns in dollars, on which they shall pay a duty of 9½ per cent. This permission is to continue six months after a peace is announced at Manilla.

The unsettled state of Europe since the above period, and the invasion of Spain by the French, have prevented any steps being taken to prosecute this branch of commerce.

CHAPTER XXVII.

Siam, Cochin-China, and Tonquin.

Siam—Juthia: Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports—Exports—Port Charges, Duties, &c. Provisions and Refreshments—Cancao—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Pulo Oby—Pulo Condore—Cochin-China; its Extent, &c.—Cambodia—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Saigong: Description—Quin-hone—Nhiatrang—Faifoe—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports—Exports—Mode of conducting the Trade—Port Charges, &c.—Turon—Hue, or Whey—Tonquin—Domea—Hean—Cachao—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Provisions and Refreshments—Hai-nan.

SIAM.

At the head of the Gulf of Siam is the River Meinam, which empties itself into the sea by several mouths, forming a number of small low islands, which cannot be seen above three leagues off; but it is rather more elevated at the eastern branch, by which it may be known. This is the best navigable channel, although the bar has on it only 8 or 9 feet at low tide; there are 17 or 18 feet on it at high water spring tides. The entrance is in latitude about 13° 30′ North, and longitude 101° 15′ East, and the anchorage is to the southward of the bar, about 3 or 4 leagues off. Ships intending to proceed up the river, ought to procure a pilot. A short distance within the bar, on the eastern bank, there is a fishing village and guard-house, where all vessels proceeding up the river, land their guns, ammunition, &c. From hence the navigation is safe to Bankok, and the soundings regular from 6 to 9 fathoms, mud.

Bankok is about ten leagues from the sea; it is about 1½ mile long, and half that breadth. It is enclosed with walls on the east and south sides, which are washed by the river. At the point where the river divides into two branches, it is defended by a strong battery, and on the other side of the river is another fort, but of no considerable importance. The country hereabouts is well inhabited.

Juthia, or Judia, the capital city and residence of the King of Siam, formerly stood on the place which is now called Bankok, from whence it was afterwards removed to the place where it now stands, being a low island about four miles in circumference. The country round is very flat, and cut through by many canals coming from the river, and by them divided into so many squares or islands, that the people

GULF OF SIAM
CAMBODIA
Saigoung City
Pt Cambodia
Pt Cambodia
Pt Cambodia

pass from one part to another in boats. The city is surrounded with a brick wall, which on the north and south sides is about 25 feet high, clean, and in good condition, having numerous battlements; but the rest of it is lower, and much decayed. This wall is open in many places, where there are small gates towards the river. On the inside there are ramparts raised against it at different distances, for placing cannon upon them. At the lower end of the city is a large bastion, running some distance into the river, besides several small ones, furnished with cannon commanding the channel. To secure the city wall from being injured by the current, a narrow bank or quay is left, which is built upon in many places. Several large canals from the river run quite through the city, generally at right angles, and many smaller ones branch out from them. Ships may come from the river up into the town, and land their cargoes near the principal houses. The streets run in a straight line along the canals; some of them are tolerably large, but the greater part narrow, and in general very dirty; some are also overflowed at spring tides. The first street, on entering the city, runs westward along the wall; it contains the best houses, and is that in which the European factories formerly were. The middle street, which runs north, is well inhabited, and full of the shops of tradesmen and artificers. Numbers of Chinese and Moors reside here; their houses are all built of stone, very small and low, covered with flat tiles; those of the natives are in general of timber and bamboos, covered with palm-leaves. The many canals occasion a great number of bridges; those which are over the great canals are built of stone, but those over the smaller are generally constructed of wood.

There are three royal palaces in the city; the first is on the north side towards the middle of the town, and consists of a large square, with several subdivisions and many buildings, adorned with a number of roofs according to the Chinese architecture, part of which are gilt over. Within the walls of the palace, as well as without, are many large stables, in which the King's elephants are kept. There is only one entrance into the palace, through which no person is admitted but on foot. The second palace is situated in the N. E. part of the city; it is of a square figure, but not near so large as the first, and is generally inhabited by the elder Prince. The third palace is smaller than either of the other two, and situated in the west division of the city. There are a great number of temples in the city, the courts of which keep a regular proportion with the streets, and are full of pyramids and columns of various shapes.

Round the city lie many suburbs, or villages, some of which consist of inhabited vessels rather than houses, containing two or three families each: they remove them from time to time, and float them, particularly when the waters are high, to places where fairs are kept, to sell their goods. The houses that stand upon firm ground, are generally built of bamboos, planks, and mats; those on the banks of the river stand on posts about six feet high, that the waters may freely pass under them. Each house is furnished with steps to come down in dry weather, and with a boat to go about when the waters are out.

On the south side of the river, a short distance below the city, the Dutch factory and magazines stood; they were splendidly and conveniently built. Lower down, on the same side, were the villages of the Malays, Japanese, and other eastern nations. On the opposite side of the river are a number of Indian and Portuguese families, who have a small church.

Siam was formerly a place of great trade. Mandelso, an intelligent traveller, gives the following account of it, as it was in 1639. Speaking of the city of Juthia, he says, "The principal commerce consists in stuffs brought from Surat and the Coast of Coromandel, all sorts of Chinese commodities, precious stones, gold, benjamin, wax, copper, lead, indigo, Calambac wood, Brazil wood, sapphires, rubies, &c. but, above all, deer skins, whereof they furnish the Japanese with about 50,000 every year; it likewise yields a great trade in rice, which they transport to all the neighbouring isles."—The English settled a factory here very soon after they visited India; but finding it expensive and unprofitable, it was withdrawn in 1623. It was re-established some years afterwards; but the country being involved in wars with its neighbours, and having seized some English property, the factors were withdrawn, and war declared

against Siam in 1686. Matters were afterwards compromised; but it does not appear that the state of the country, or the trade, has since that period induced the Company to fix an establishment here.

The French in 1660 sent some missionaries to Siam, who were favourably received. Attempts were made to convert the King to Christianity, which failed of success. The French, however, were in great esteem, and a M. Faulkon was appointed Prime Minister. His ambition proved his ruin; he became so intoxicated with power, as to entertain a design upon the throne by deposing the King. In order to accomplish his design, it was necessary to call in foreign aid. He persuaded the King to send an embassy to France, which left Siam in 1685, and was favourably received by the reigning Monarch, Louis XIV. who, in compliance with the wish of the embassy, sent Jesuits, artists, military officers, and a number of troops, who were put in possession of Bankok, the key of the kingdom. Just as every thing was ready for the execution of his plot, it was discovered, Faulkon seized, and put to death, and the whole of the French expelled, since which period they have not been permitted to obtain a footing in the kingdom.

For upwards of half a century past, Siam has been in a very unsettled state, arising from the wars in which she has been engaged, more particularly with the kingdom of Pegu. In 1759 the Birmans took from the Siamese the ports of Tavay, Mergui, and Tenasserim; and in 1765 they invested the City of Juthia, which the King having abandoned, it surrendered on capitulation. A heavy mulct was imposed upon the inhabitants, the defences of the city were destroyed, and a Siamese Governor appointed, who took an oath of allegiance to the Birman monarchy, and engaged to pay an annual tribute; the Birmans then returned home. The Siamese soon drove out the enemy, and obtained possession of their capital and several of their sea-ports; but the Birmans were too powerful to be entirely expelled. The war continued, without any event of importance, till 1793, when overtures for peace were made by the Siamese; and a negotiation commenced, which terminated in the ratification of a treaty very favourable to the Birmans. By this compact the Siamese ceded the western maritime towns, as far to the southward as Mergui, including the entire possession of the coast of Tenasserim, with the important ports of Tavay and Mergui.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Coins.—Accounts are kept in tales, ticals, miams, fouangs, and cowries thus divided:

800 cowries	make	1 fouang, called by the natives phuani.
2 fouangs		1 miam, or mace.
4 miams		1 tical, or baat.
4 ticals		1 tale, or tamluni.

10 miams are equal to a China tale, and 5 Siam tales are always reckoned at 8 China tales.

The coins are gold ticals, which pass for 10 silver ticals; silver ticals, miams, foumngs, and samporfs. The silver tical weighs 225½ grains, and is from 11 oz. 4 dwts. to 11 oz. 11 dwts. fine; thus it is worth £2 5s. to £2 6s. sterling; these coins are often adulterated. Two ticals pass commonly for a Spanish dollar, and 2½ ticals for a Dutch ducatoon.

The fineness of gold and silver is expressed, as in China, by touches.

Great Weights are ticals, catties, and peculs, thus divided: 80 ticals make 1 catty, and 50 Siam catties should be equal to 1 China pecul of 133⅓ lbs. avoirdupois; for all their goods are weighed by the China dotchin, but the King's weight at Siam is never found to give more than 129 lbs.

Gold and Silver Weights are the tical, which weighs nearly 9 dwts. 10 grs.

Measures.—The largest measure for corn is the cohi, of 40 sestes; the seste contains 50 sats, and weighs 100 Siam catties.

The long measure is 2 soks making 1 ken, 2 kens 1 vouah, which make 75½ English inches; 20 souahs make 1 sen, and 100 sens 1 league, or roeneng, which is 4204 English yards.

IMPORTS.

The Portuguese are the principal traders at Siam, but the English merchants at Calcutta have occasionally sent ships here, and their adventures have generally turned out profitable. From the different parts of India and China are brought the following articles for the use of the country, few of which are again exported:

Brasiery.	Hardware.	Opium.	Swords.
Cloth, scarlet.	Ironmongery.	Piece-goods of sorts.	Spices.
Cutlery.	Ink, China.	Paper.	Sugar-candy.
China-ware.	Lackered ware.	Silk, raw.	Tea.
Canton cloth.	Looking-glasses.	Silk piece-goods.	Toys.
Glass-ware.	Lace, gold.	Saffron, China.	Vermilion.
Guns and pistols.	Nankeen.	Sweetmeats.	Watches.

Various articles of eastern produce are brought by Malay proas to meet the country ships and China junks, which are enumerated among those exported.

The King is the principal merchant, and engrosses the greatest part of the trade. When you have settled with the Datoo, or King's merchant, what part of your cargo the King is to have (which is commonly called a present, unless he asks particularly to buy any thing), some of the principal merchants of the place are called in to value them, and as they are valued, you are paid by the King, as a present, in the goods which he monopolizes, at the highest prices they will bring at most markets in India.

EXPORTS.

No private merchants are permitted to trade in tin, tutenague, elephants' teeth, lead, or sapan-wood without leave from the King, which permission is seldom granted, as he monopolizes these articles to himself, and pays in them for any goods he purchases.

The following are the general prices for elephants' teeth received from the King in payment:

2 teeth to a pecul, equal to 120 ticals.		8 teeth to a pecul, equal to 72 ticals.	
3	ditto	112 ditto.	9 ditto 64 ditto.
4	ditto	104 ditto.	10 ditto 56 ditto.
5	ditto	96 ditto.	11 ditto 48 ditto.
6	ditto	88 ditto.	12 ditto 40 ditto.
7	ditto	80 ditto.	13 to 20 or 30 ditto 32 ditto.

thus falling eight ticals in every pecul as the number of teeth increases; but if you purchase with ready money, instead of receiving them in barter for goods, you will buy each quality eight ticals per pecul under the above prices, and still lower if you have permission to trade with private merchants.

In purchasing sapan-wood, it is customary to allow five catties per pecul for loss of weight; and as each draught is weighed by the five pecul dotchin, you are allowed 525 China catties, which, if it is the first sort, should not be more than from 16 to 18 pieces; the second sort runs 22 to 24 pieces, and as the number of pieces increases, the price falls in proportion.

The mountains produce a few diamonds, which are of an excellent water; likewise sapphires, rubies, and agates; gold is also met with in various parts of the country. They have also excellent copper, but not in any great plenty.

The under-mentioned articles are procurable here from the private merchants:

Agala wood ..... 20 to 30 ticals per catty.	Gold-dust ..... according to quality.
Beetle-nut ..... 5 to 7 ditto per pecul.	Pepper ..... 12 to 15 ticals per pecul.
Beech de mer ..... 15 to 20 ditto.	Rattans ..... 6 to 7 ditto.
Birds' nests, 1st sort ..... 30 to 35 ditto per catty.	Sapan-wood ..... 4 to 5 ditto.
Ditto ..... 2d sort ..... 15 to 20 ditto.	Salt ..... 7 ticals per quoyane.
Copper ..... in small quantities.	Tin ..... 30 ditto per pecul.
Diamonds ..... according to quality.	Wax ..... 45 to 50 ditto.

The Dutch used to procure large quantities of sapan-wood from Siam, for which they paid in muskets, &c. In 1769 the King of Siam made application to the Government at Batavia to re-establish their factory, but they did not accede to it. We may therefore conclude the trade not worth carrying on to any great extent, if the Dutch, to whom it was so contiguous, declined interfering in it.

The following is an account of the cargoes of two junks, bound from Siam to Japan. The names of many of the articles are new to the English trade:

Old Pinang	546 peculs.	Sapan-wood	1500 peculs.
Nammorack	67 ditto.	Rhinoceros horns	1 ditto.
Jamama	42 ditto.	Agala-wood	2 ditto.
Cheman	20 ditto.	Girlits	78 ditto.
Buck-skins	250 in No.	Gazeens	12 ditto.
Tin	147 peculs.	Red panices	16 pieces.
Pepper	409 ditto.	Senangees	2 peculs.
Clappas oil	7 ditto.	Maddap hunts	16 ditto.
Aleateeles	43 ditto.	Aligia condracks	74 in No.
Saffaran	59 pieces.	White sugar	1420 peculs.
Drugs	9 peculs.	Black ditto	284 ditto.
Hare-skins	54 in No.	Hart-skins	9360 in No.
Fish-skins	15,836 ditto.	Cobbittors	140 ditto.
Buffalo-horns	2303 ditto.	Bark	7 peculs.
Cow-hides	600 ditto.	Burnt alum	3 ditto.
Canes	112 peculs.	Drugs	1 ditto.
Capock	130 ditto.	Gilligmom	2 ditto.
Red earth	207 ditto.	Wash	1 ditto.
Sandal-wood	570 pieces.	Cloves	2 ditto.
Elephants' teeth	40 peculs.	Two chests of small wares, &c.	

For many years there have not been any junks sent from Siam to Japan.

PORT-CHARGES, DUTIES, &c.

Every application for a permit to purchase any description of goods costs 10¼ ticals. This permit only serves for one house and one time of weighing; so that if you are about receiving any quantity of goods, of the same quality, from different merchants, agree with them to send it all to one house, and make one day for weighing off the whole in the merchant's name at whose house it is weighed. This will save the expence of a multiplicity of permits, and forward business. Each weighing day you must have three of the King's writers, the first and second Shabundar, and the linguist, and to each you daily pay one quarter tical; but it will be to your interest to give them some trifling presents.

Elephants' teeth, tin, sapan-wood, and lead, purchased from the King, are free of all customs; but if purchased from private merchants, are subject to the following charges:

Elephants' teeth, any size.....4 ticals per pecul.	Sapan-wood.....4 ticals per 100 peculs.
Tin .....2 ditto per bahar.	Lead .....2 mace per bahar.

Ships from any part of India (as Bengal, Coromandel, Malabar, or Guzzerat Coasts, &c.) pay the following customs before they are permitted to sail:

Measurage, if above 18 feet beam, to the King .....10 ticals.
Ditto to the Barcola, or first Shabundar .....10 ditto.
Ditto to the second Shabundar.....10 ditto.

For your arrival at the bar.....10½ ticals.	For each permit .....10½ ticals.
For pilots and entrance .....10½ ditto.	A permit to measure .....10½ ditto.
To pass the 1st chop-house .....10½ ditto.	Ditto to open your bales.....12 ditto.
Ditto .....2d ditto .....10½ ditto.	Ditto for leave to sell .....10½ ditto.
On departure to 1st ditto .....20 ditto.	Registering inwards .....1½ ditto.
Ditto.....2d ditto .....20 ditto.	Two permits to pass the chop-house ....21 ditto.

At the place where the guns and ammunition are landed (which all vessels frequenting the port are obliged to do), you pay 20 ticals, with some other charges, which are very considerable.

The duties upon imports are 8 per cent. except a few trifling articles which are excused.

Vessels from Malacca, Palembang, Banca, Batavia, Tringano, Cambodia, and Cochin-China, pay neither duties nor customs on their goods; they only pay the following port-charges:

For registering inwards .....1½ tical.
Two permits to pass the tobangoes, or chop-houses .....10½ ditto.

If the vessel has no goods, she will pay a tical per covid of 14 inches for her breadth of beam; but if she comes here to trade, she pays two ticals per covid.

All vessels from India going to Siam, should take a fresh port-clearance from Malacca, as the great indulgences she will enjoy, must obviously appear, and the saving in the measurement and charges.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Bullocks, sheep, and goats are in plenty, but the former are not permitted to be killed from religious motives. Poultry of all kinds is in abundance, and cheap. They have all the tropical fruits, and the sea yields excellent fish of all kinds, particularly flounders, which are dried, and exported to all the eastern ports. Here is procured the best balachong, a composition of dried shrimps, pepper, salt, and sea-weed, &c. beaten together to the consistence of a tough paste, and then packed in jars for use and exportation; it is much sought after by the Malays, but to a European palate it is not very pleasing.

CANCAO

Is situated on the east side of the Gulf of Siam, about four miles up a river, navigable for vessels of burthen, in latitude about 10° 5′ North, and longitude 104° 5′ East. It stands near the spot where Ponteamas formerly stood, which was destroyed by the Siamese in 1717. A number of Chinese are resident here, who carry on a considerable trade with Canton and various parts of Cochin-China.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

The current coins are the Spanish dollar and China cash. All goods are bought and sold by the China pecul and catty, and all bargains are made in Spanish dollars.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—The commerce of this place is chiefly in the hands of the Chinese. Tutenague forms one of the principal articles of their imports; in one year 1590 peculs were imported; the other articles consisted of

China-ware.	Ironmongery.	Sweetmeats.	Thread of sorts.
Cutlery.	Lackered ware.	Tea.	Vermillion.
Furniture.	Silk goods of sorts.	Toys.	Wearing apparel.

and many other commodities for the consumption of the Chinese inhabitants.

EXPORTS.—The following is the list of cargoes of seven junks from this place to Canton in one year:

Agula-wood, coarse	4 peculs.	Fish-glue	9 peculs.
Bark, for dying	63 ditto.	Gamboge	1 ditto.
Beetle-nut	1546 ditto.	Long pepper	3 ditto.
Beech de mer	450 ditto.	Long cloth, coarse	26 pieces.
Benjamin	3 ditto.	Rattan mats	100 in No.
Black-wood	1888 ditto.	Pepper	148 peculs.
Blue colour	199 ditto.	Putchock	7 ditto.
Canes	14 ditto.	Rattans	413 ditto.
Cloves and nutmegs	5 ditto.	Rose-wood, common	1888 ditto.
Cochineal	6 ditto.	Ditto, finer kind	21 ditto.
Cotton	163 ditto.	Sapan-wood	2385 ditto.
Deer sinews	46 ditto.	Seeds, small white	6 ditto.
Dried shrimps	360 ditto.	Shark-fins	9 ditto.
Ditto fish	13 ditto.	Skins, cows	125 ditto.
Ditto deers' flesh	412 ditto.	Ditto, deer	98 ditto.
Ditto beef	281 ditto.	Tin	1984 ditto.
Drugs of sorts	6 ditto.	Tortoise-shell	2 ditto.
Dragons' blood	4 ditto.	Wax	52 ditto.

Between this port and Pulo Oby, a small island off the S.W. point of Cambodia, which is in latitude 8° 25′ North, and longitude 104° 54′ East, there are no places of trade. On the north side of that island a few families are settled, near the watering place, where 100 butts of water may be filled with convenience in a day. About 40 leagues to the E. N. E. of Pulo Oby is

PULO CONDORE,

The principal island of a small group which goes by this name, about three leagues long from N. E. to S.W. and two to four miles broad; the centre is in latitude 8° 40′ North, and longitude 106° 42′ East, and is about 17 leagues S. by E. from the mouth of Cambodia River. This island is the only one inhabited; it is a ridge of high mountains, difficult of access, and separating the harbour from the great

bay, where the inhabitants dwell, who amount to about 200, all fugitives from Cambodia and Cochin-China, exceedingly indolent, covetous, and poor. The middling island is advantageously situated to the westward of the great one, forming between the two an excellent harbour. On the S. E. side of the great island there is a very spacious bay, at the entrance of which are some small islands that close it up, as it were, half way. Its chief entrance is to the S. E.; the others are neither so good nor so convenient. Within this bay, upon a marshy and sandy plain, is the village, consisting of about 40 huts, built of timber, bamboos, &c. Here may be seen the remains of the English fort. Pilots are procured here for ships proceeding to Saigong River.

Pulo Condore produces only sweet potatoes, small gourds, very bad water-melons, and black beans, all in small quantities. It produces likewise many forest trees, some of which are fit for masts and yards to ships. This island has no springs, affording only rain-water, which running down the mountains among the rotten leaves of trees, wherewith the ground is covered, acquires a certain tincture with an unwholesome quality: therefore the inhabitants prefer the whitish water of the wells to the clear water from the mountains. Their only game consists in wild pigeons and a species of woodcock. The island abounds in reptiles, both troublesome and hurtful, consisting of snakes of a prodigious size and length, others smaller, and many of them venomous: likewise centipedes, scorpions, and a variety of insects; but the ants are the most troublesome of all, getting into every thing, and spoiling whatever they enter. All these, with the sterility of the soil, and the unwholesomeness of the air, render Pulo Condore a wretched abode.

In 1701 the English Company, after consulting the celebrated Captain Dampier, who had hove down and repaired his ship on this island, resolved to fix a factory here, and erect fortifications, for which stores were embarked; and in a short time after, a fort of brick and timber was erected, and an expectation held out by Mr. Catchpoole, the Resident, that the island would soon become a station for the China trade, from which the ships could be dispatched to the different ports in that empire to dispose of European goods, and to purchase Chinese articles, it having been found impracticable to fix factories in a satisfactory manner; and that China produce could be had at Pulo Condore from the junks, at as cheap a rate as it could be purchased at the ports of Canton. On the 2d of March, 1705, the troops, which were principally Macassars, revolted, set fire to the Company's warehouses, and massacred Mr. Catchpoole and the greater part of the English on the island. To this treachery they were supposed to be instigated by the Cochin-Chinese, that they might get possession of the Company's treasure, estimated at 22,000 tales. Thus ended a settlement which the East India Company had formed, on the presumption that it might become a market for the sale of English goods in China, and for obtaining China produce, without being exposed to the vexatious oppressions of the officers in the ports of that empire, to which all Europeans at this period were liable.

COCHIN-CHINA.

The whole extent of coast from the Gulf of Siam to that of Tonquin, which is commonly called the Coast of Cambodia, Talomps, and Cochin-China, are now under the latter Government, and formed into three divisions: the southernmost extends from the Gulf of Siam to latitude about 12° 0 North, and is called Donai; the centre extends about three degrees to the northward, and is called Chang; the northernmost extends from thence to Tonquin, and is called Hue. There are few countries that contain so many excellent bays, roads, and harbours, or that are better situated for commerce, from its interior communication by means of its numerous rivers.

Cochin-China has experienced all the horrors of civil war for a series of years. The following historical sketch of the affairs of that distracted country is extracted from Barrow's Voyage to Cochin-China, a work replete with information respecting this part of the globe.

"In the year 1774, in the 35th year of the reign of Caung-shung, an insurrection broke out in his capital, Quin-hone, or Quin-nong. This rebellion was headed by three brothers; the eldest, whose name was Yinyac, was a wealthy merchant, who carried on an extensive commerce with China and Japan; the name of the second was Long-niang, a General Officer of high rank and great command; and the third was a Priest. The first step they took was to get possession of the King, and to secure every part of the royal family who came within their reach; and all who fell into their hands, were immediately put to death. The City of Saigong was supposed to be favourable to the cause of the deposed Sovereign; an army was therefore marched against it, the walls were levelled with the ground, and 20,000 of its inhabitants put to the sword. In their arrangements for the future government of this extensive country, it was determined that Yinyac should possess the two divisions of Chang and Donai; Long-niang, that of Hue, bordering on Tonquin; and the youngest brother, to be High-priest of all Cochin-China. Long-niang had scarcely set foot in his capital, Hue, before he took occasion to quarrel with the King of Tonquin, who was a tributary vassal to the Emperor of China. The King, abandoning his army after the first engagement, fled to Pekin, to demand the assistance of the Emperor Kien-Long, who ordered an army of 100,000 men to march against the Cochin-Chinese. Long-niang, by means of his spies, was fully apprized of the movements of this immense army. He sent out detachments to destroy the villages, and lay waste the country through which it had to pass; and the Chinese army, before it had even reached the frontier of Tonquin, was distressed for want of provisions, and obliged to fall back. The consequence of which was a treaty, and Long-niang was recognised as King of Tonquin and Cochin-China, which were in future to be considered as tributary to the Emperor of China.

"At the period of the rebellion there resided at Court a French missionary, of the name of Adran, who called himself the Apostolic Vicar of Cochin-China. Caung-shung held him in such great consideration as to place under his tuition his only son and heir to the throne. Adran, the Prince, his wife, and infant son, on the first burst of the revolt, saw their only hope of safety was in flight. The King was already in the power of the rebels; but the Queen, the young Prince, with his wife and infant son, by the assistance of Adran, effected their escape, and arrived safe on an island near the coast, which they fortified in the best manner they could. Adran, having ascertained that the people of the southern provinces were still faithful to the interest of the lawful Prince, conceived the plan of applying to Louis XVI. of France for succours, in order to replace the lawful heir on the throne, on such terms as would not be objectionable to himself, and might eventually be highly advantageous to France. The King committed to his charge his eldest son, with whom Adran embarked for Pondicherry, and from thence to Europe, where he arrived in 1787. The young Prince was presented at Court, and treated with every mark of attention and respect; and the project of the missionary was so highly approved of, that in the course of a few months a treaty was drawn up and concluded between Louis XVI. and the King of Cochin-China. The principal articles of this treaty were as follow:

"I. There shall be an offensive and defensive alliance between the Kings of France and Cochin-China; they do hereby agree mutually to afford assistance to each other against all those who may make war upon either of the two contracting parties.

"II. To accomplish this purpose, there shall be put under the orders of the King, a squadron of 20 French ships of war, of such size and force as shall be deemed sufficient for the demands of his service.

"III. Five complete European regiments, and two regiments of native colonial troops, shall be embarked without delay for Cochin-China.

"IV. His Majesty Louis XVI. shall engage to furnish within four months the sum of one million of dollars; 500,000 of which shall be in specie; the remainder in saltpetre, cannon, muskets, and other military stores.

"V. From the moment the French troops shall have entered the dominions of the King of Cochin-China, they and their Generals, both by sea and land, shall receive their orders from the King of Cochin-China. To this effect the commanding officers of his Christian Majesty shall be furnished with instructions to obey in all things, and in all places, the will of his new ally.

"On the other hand,

"I. The King of Cochin-China, as soon as tranquillity shall be re-established in his dominions, shall engage to furnish for fourteen ships of the line such a quantity of stores and provisions as will enable them to put to sea without delay, on the requisition of the Ambassador from the King of France; and for the better effecting this purpose, there shall be sent out from Europe a corps of officers and petty officers of the marine, to be put upon a permanent establishment in Cochin-China.

"II. His Majesty Louis XVI. shall have resident Consuls on every part of the coast of Cochin-China, wherever he may think fit to place them. These Consuls shall be allowed the privilege of building, or causing to be built, ships, frigates, and other vessels without molestation, under any pretence from the Cochin-Chinese Government.

"III. The Ambassador of His Majesty Louis XVI. to the Court of Cochin-China shall be allowed to fell such timber, in any of the forests, as may be found convenient and suitable for building ships, frigates, or other vessels.

"IV. The King of Cochin-China and the Council of State shall cede, in perpetuity to His Most Christian Majesty, his heirs, and successors, the port and territory of Hansan (Bay of Turon and Peninsula), and the adjacent islands from Faifoe on the south to Hai-nan, on the north.

"V. The King of Cochin-China engages to furnish men and materials necessary for the construction of forts, bridges, high roads, tanks, &c. as far as may be judged necessary for the protection and defence of the cessions made to his faithful ally, the King of France.

"VI. In case that the natives shall at any time be unwilling to remain in the ceded territory, they will be at liberty to leave it, and will be reimbursed the value of the property they may leave upon it. The civil and criminal jurisprudence shall remain unaltered; all religious opinions shall be free; the taxes shall be collected by the French in the usual mode of the country, and the collectors shall be appointed jointly by the Ambassador of France and King of Cochin-China; but the latter shall not claim any part of those taxes which will belong properly to His Most Christian Majesty, for the support of his territories.

"VII. In the event of His Most Christian Majesty being resolved to wage war in any part of India, it shall be allowed to the Commander in Chief of the French forces, to raise a levy of 14,000 men, whom he shall cause to be trained in the same manner as they are in France, and to be put under French discipline.

"VIII. In the event of any power whatsoever attacking the French in their Cochin-Chinese territory, the King shall furnish 60,000 men, or more, in land forces, whom he shall clothe, victual, &c.

"Besides these articles, the treaty contained some others of inferior importance, but all of them greatly in favour of the French. Adran was promoted to an Episcopal See, under the title of Bishop of Cochin-China, and honoured with the appointment of Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to that Court. Matters being thus far concluded in Paris, Adran and his young charge set sail for Pondicherry in the Medusa frigate. He called on his passage at the Mauritius, where he found lying a ship of 50 guns, seven frigates, and some transports, and that the number of disposable troops was between four and five thousand. The ships were ordered to be equipped, and the troops to hold themselves in readiness for embarkation, the moment that an advice boat should arrive from Pondicherry, which he meant to dispatch on his arrival there, with orders to that effect. Some untoward circumstances occurred, which induced the Governor-General to send a fast-sailing vessel from Pondicherry to the Mauritius, with directions to

suspend the armament until further orders should be received from the Court of Versailles; and the Revolution in the meantime breaking out in France, put a final stop to all their proceedings.

"The unforeseen events that had put an end to the expedition, did not, however, deter the Bishop from the prosecution of his original plan of re-establishing the lawful Sovereign of Cochin-China, if still living, or the young Prince, if his father should be dead, on the throne of his ancestors. He had carried with him from France several officers, who were to have held appointments in the new settlements. With some of these, as volunteers, the Bishop and Prince embarked in a merchant ship for Cape St. Jacques, where they hoped to receive intelligence of the King. Here they learned that the King had been induced to venture a landing in his dominions; that all ranks had flocked with ardour to his standard; and that he had marched without interruption to Saigong, whose works of defence were immediately strengthened and put in good order. This favourable intelligence gave a spur to the exertions of the Bishop and his son, who joined the King at Saigong in 1790, and they were followed by a vessel, which had been taken up to convey arms and ammunition. The greater part of the first year was occupied in fortifying Saigong, in recruiting and disciplining the army, and in collecting and equipping a fleet.

"In 1791 the rebel Long-niang died at Hue, leaving behind him a son about twelve years of age, to succeed him in the Government of Tonquin, and the northern parts of Cochin-China. The ratification of his title to the kingdom of Tonquin, by the Emperor of China, had been the cause of hostilities between the two brothers. In all their skirmishes Yinyac had been worsted, and the limits of his country reduced. In 1792 the King embarked with his fleet, which he had put under the direction of two French officers, and attacked that of Yinyac in the harbour of Quin-hone, the greater part of which they captured or destroyed. Yinyac did not long survive the destruction of his fleet, and his son succeeded to the government. Caung-shung, in 1796, resolved to attack the capital by land; the young usurper was enabled to bring against him an army of 100,000 men, but the King completely routed it with a very inferior force, and took possession of Quin-hone, and the whole country, as far as Turon Bay, submitted to the arms of its lawful Sovereign. The other young usurper at Hue still kept possession of the kingdom of Tonquin, against which Caung-shung was preparing a formidable armament in 1800; but it does not appear, by any authentic accounts which have been received, that he has reconquered that country."

Under the auspices of the Bishop, the King turned his attention to the improvement of his country. He established a manufactory of saltpetre, opened roads of communication between important posts and towns; he encouraged the cultivation of beetle and pepper, the plantations of which had been destroyed by the army of the usurper; built a large fleet, some of which were of European construction, and about twenty junks similar to those of China, and the rest gun-vessels and transports.

In 1778 the Bengal Government gave permission to a mercantile house to send two ships laden with merchandise to Cochin-China, entrusting a sort of demi-diplomatic commission of a public nature to a gentleman connected with the firm of the house. The end of this appointment was the establishment of a commercial intercourse between the Company's settlements in India and Cochin-China, and the attainment of such privileges and advantages to British vessels as the Government might be inclined to grant. On their arrival at Quin-hone, the agent was introduced to Yinyac, who was now master of the province, and was favourably received. After some explanation, it was settled that for vessels of three masts, 7000 quans should be paid (they allow 5 quans for a Spanish dollar); for those of two masts 4000, and for smaller ones 2000 quans each. He afterwards set forth the conditions upon which English ships were to trade in his dominions, and a licence for visiting any of his ports. They then proceeded to the northern part of Cochin-China, where they were involved in hostilities with the rebel Government at Hue, and had a narrow escape of having their vessel seized, and themselves put to death.

but it is said to have been, during the peace and prosperity of the country, a considerable place of trade, and some of the European nations had factories here; but there has been no trade carried on by Europeans for some time past, except now and then a vessel from Macao stops in her way to or from Faifoe, with which river that of Turon is said to communicate. The ruins of some large and good houses are visible; but what remain are low, chiefly built of bamboos, and covered with palm-leaves or rice-straw, and scattered about in an irregular manner, being interspersed with trees and small gardens. The neighbourhood is cultivated with rice, tobacco, and sugar-canes.

The market-place is well supplied with all the vegetable produce of tropical climates, also large quantities of poultry, particularly ducks, and the harbour abounds with fish of various kinds.

HUE, or WHEY.

This city is situated five leagues up a river, about 18 leagues to the N.W. of Turon harbour, in latitude about 16° 35 North; there is good anchorage off it in six fathoms. This city was formerly the residence of the King of Cochin-China. When the northern provinces rebelled, it became the seat of the rebel Government, but has again with the provinces been retaken by that King, who sometimes resides in it at the present time.

The city is very extensive, being populous, and the houses straggling; several small rivers which meet here, make it very pleasant, and the conveyance from one part to another is mostly by water, for which purpose every substantial family keeps a commodious covered boat, and there are others for hire, that at any part may be had on call. The streets near the palace, which is a considerable distance from the beginning of the town, are regular, long, and very wide. The palace is fortified; it is an oblong square, the greater sides extending about half a mile, the lesser two-thirds of that distance. It is formed by a retaining wall, behind which a rampart of earth, 10 or 12 feet high, is thrown up, with steps rising to a convenient level for the discharge of missile weapons; it has no embrasures, the guns being pointed through a kind of port-holes, made in the bottom of the retaining walls; the number mounted is about 60, the largest 9 pounders. For six or eight feet without the wall, short pointed bamboos, from six to twelve inches long, are driven obliquely into the ground; beyond these is a ditch, eight feet wide, and as many deep, fenced with bamboos growing, which is succeeded by another space with pointed ones driven in the ground, and the whole encompassed by a low checkered bamboo rail. The ground within the fort is divided by a number of brick walls meeting at right angles, and forming squares, some of which are allotted to the holding markets, others to granaries, quarters for the soldiers, stables for elephants, horses, &c. Hue has, however, suffered much during the civil wars, which have devastated the country.

A considerable trade is carried on here with Cancao, Saigong, and all parts of their own coasts, in vessels that are about 100 tons burthen, which can easily go up to the city, the river having a bar, on which are only two fathoms at low water. The Chinese carry on a great trade here, having sometimes 30 junks in the river at a time. Their imports and exports are similar to those enumerated at Faifoe.

TONQUIN.

The Gulf of Tonquin is bounded to the eastward by the Island of Hai-nan, to the northward by the coast of China, and to the southward by the coast of Cochin-China; it is about 35 leagues wide, having numerous small islands within it, two of which, in the bottom of the gulf, are marks for the two principal branches of Tonquin river. One of these mouths, or branches, is called Rokbo, and discharges itself into the sea near the N.W. corner of the gulf, in about 20° 6′ North latitude; this branch has not above twelve feet water at its entrance; it is, however, frequented by the Chinese and Siamese vessels, who proceed up it to Hean.

DOMEA.

The principal branch of Tonquin river, falls into the Gulf, about 20 leagues N.E. from the former, in latitude 20° 50 North. It has a bar liable to shift: therefore ships that come in hither, commonly wait for a pilot to direct them. The pilots are fishermen, who live at a village called Batsha, near the mouth of the river, so situated, that they can see the ships waiting for pilots, and hear the guns that are fired to give notice of their arrival. The mark to approach the river, is a mountain inland, called the Elephant, bearing about N. W. by W. and when a small island, called Pearl Island, on the eastern side of the road, is about N. N. E. three miles distant, it will be proper to anchor, and wait for a pilot. The depth of the river is various in different seasons, being 26 feet in the northerly monsoon, and not above 18 in the southerly one; it is about a mile wide at its entrance, but becomes narrower as you proceed up. About 6 or 7 leagues up, is the town of Domea, which is a handsome place, situated close to the shore on the right hand side of the river; it consists of about 100 houses. The Dutch ships that trade here, usually lie before the town; but the English used formerly to proceed about three miles farther up, at a place where there are no houses, and erect bankshalls during their stay. The trade of the kingdom being carried on at Cachao, you proceed in country boats from this place; and it requires a sharp look-out to prevent your goods being plundered by the boatmen.

HEAN

Is about 40 miles above Domea, and 60 from the sea; it is situated on the east side of the river, and is a town of considerable extent. Here the Chinese merchants reside; they were formerly settled at Cachao, but removed from thence by order of the Tonquinese Government, and prohibited from again returning: they, however, go there to buy and sell goods, but do not make it their constant residence. The French had formerly a factory here, and their Bishop had a neat house at the north end of the town, close to the river, encompassed with a high wall. A little before reaching Hean, the main stream of the river divides itself into the two channels of Rokbo and Domea, up the former of which the Chinese and Siamese vessels come and anchor before Hean. The Governor of the province resides here, who gives his chop or pass to every vessel proceeding up or down the river.

CACHAO,

The capital of Tonquin, is about twenty miles from Hean, or eighty from the sea; it is situated on the west side of the river, is very large, but without any fortifications; many of the houses are built of brick, but the generality are of mud and timber, thatched with palm-leaves. The principal streets are wide, and mostly paved with small stones. The Kings of Tonquin made this city their constant residence, and there are several palaces, the principal of which is surrounded with a wall 16 or 17 feet high, and very thick; it is faced on both sides with brick. There are several gates to it, but the principal one faces the city.

The English settled a factory at Tonquin in 1672; but the report of their Resident on the trade shewed the difficulty of carrying it on with any advantage. He stated "that the Government was arbitrary and absolute; that the powers of the Mandarins were unlimited, provided they met the views of the King, and therefore were vexatious to the trader; that the natives were avaricious, jealous, and vindictive; hence, judging from the practice of the Dutch, who for a long time had traded at the place, the import of such goods as the King might require, must be complied with, and the sales consist of such articles as were in common demand; that therefore a considerable stock would be required for a participation in the trade, the profits from which were uncertain; that the temptation to the Company to continue this speculation, was the prospect of obtaining raw silk from Japan, and bringing silver, gold, and other articles in return; that the sale of English cloth was very uncertain, from the dress of the different ranks at Tonquin being fixed, and from

the arbitrary power, from the King to the Mandarin, being such as to render it hazardous to expose goods, which might tempt avarice without producing profit; on the whole, that the establishment of trade at Tonquin was rather to be considered as an expedient for facilitating an intercourse with Japan, than in itself a means of procuring imports for Europe, or sales of European produce. Notwithstanding this unfavourable report, the Company continued to persevere in the trade; but after very heavy losses, were in a few years obliged to withdraw the establishment. The Dutch trade was first interrupted in 1664, and their factories withdrawn, but settled again at the request of the King, and were continued, though not without many disputes between the two nations, for about forty years, when they were entirely withdrawn, and the trade carried on only by ships occasionally sent there.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Coins.—Cash are the only coins here, and are of two sorts, large and small: 600 large and 1000 small cash are accounted 1 maradoe. Accounts are kept in tales, mace, and candareens, all of which are regulated by the price of the maradoes and copper cash.

The price of silver is always variable here, on account of its rising and falling according to the quantity brought in; by this the Chinese make considerable advantage. Sometimes they allow 28 maradoes for 1 bar of silver of 10 tales weight, and at others not more than 21. All the Mexico and Pillar dollars imported are run into bar silver, without any distinction; these bars should weigh 10 tales each. They frequently put alloy into them, so that they are seldom so good as the dollar silver; though in payments you are obliged to make them an allowance of 3 per cent, to make it their standard, as they call it.

	oz.	dwts.	grs.
10 tales weigh, with the 3 per cent. included	12	6	2 1/2
1 tale ditto ditto	1	4	14 1/4
Which is more than the China tale	0	0	9 1/4

Weights.—All goods are weighed by the Chinese dotchin. The King's weights hold out full 132lbs. to a pecul; but it is necessary that every person should have a true dotchin of his own.

Measures.—The Chinese covid and punta are in general use for measuring cloth.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

Imports.—The natives carry on little or no trade themselves by sea; it is therefore transacted by the Chinese and Siamese vessels, and occasionally by Europeans. The articles imported are

Long-cloths, ordinary.	Caliatour wood.	Pepper.
Allejars, red.	Ginghams, fine and coarse.	Salempores, white, ordinary.
Betelles, white, ordinary.	Guns, large and small.	Saltpetre.
Brimstone.	Long-cloths, white, fine.	Silver, in coin.
Beetle-nut.	Morees, white, fine.	Silk, Cossimburar.
Chintz, fine and coarse.	Putchock.	Taffeties.

English broad cloth and other European commodities are in little estimation; the only colours of the first at all regarded, are red, black, grass green, and blue. The East India Company formerly sent joiners' work here to be lackered, and returned to Europe.

For the commodities imported you receive silver or goods, according to contract; but the country being poor, the merchants have to wait two or three months for their returns. A new comer suffers many inconveniences, from their being no customs levied on goods imported. The Mandarins cause the ships to be rummaged, and take what commodities they please, at their own rates, and for which there is no remedy.

EXPORTS.—The returns made to the Chinese and other traders frequenting Tonquin, are as follow:

Aniseeds.	Galangal.	Musk.	Silks, wrought.
Cassia.	Gold.	Paper.	Timber, of sorts.
China-root.	Ginger.	Rhubarb.	Tortoise-shell.
Earthen-ware.	Lackered-ware.	Silk, raw.	Worm-seeds.

Of gold great quantities may be procured, about the same quality of China gold, from 92 to 94 touch, the price varying from 11 to 13 tales of silver for 1 tale of gold. They manufacture many kinds of beautiful silks, pelongs, gauzes, &c. which are very cheap, and their lackered ware used to be more esteemed than that of Japan. For these goods it is necessary to make an advance of one-third, or a half to the merchants who are poor, and have no goods by them. The ships are generally obliged to wait till they are brought from the interior.

No customs inwards are paid, but merchants are obliged to make considerable presents to the King and his Mandarins. On silks and lackered ware exported, a duty of 5 per cent. is levied.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Bullocks, sheep, goats, and hogs are to be procured; likewise ducks, geese, and fowls, with a variety of wild game: and of fruits they have plantains, melons, pine-apples, guavas, &c. The river and bay abound with fish, and turtle is occasionally to be met with.

HAI-NAN.

This island, which bounds the Gulf of Tonquin to the eastward, extends about 55 leagues in a N. E. and S. W. direction, and is about 25 leagues in breadth. It is subject to the Chinese Government. The N. W. coast is but little known to Europeans. On the south coast are several fine bays, affording good anchorage and shelter from the N. E. monsoon, and which have occasionally been visited by ships that have met with disasters in the China seas.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

China.

South Coast of China—Macao; Description—Imports and Exports—Provisions and Refreshments—Bocca Tigris—Whampoa—Canton; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Commerce of Canton—Security Merchants—East India Company's Establishment of Supracargoes, their Allowances, &c.—Company's Imports from England—Remarks thereon—Company's Exports to England—Factory Expences, &c.—Imports from England in Private Trade of the Commanders and Officers of the Company's Ships—Exports to England in Private Trade—Articles imported and exported in the Company's Ships—Commerce with the British Settlements in India—Articles of Import and Export, and their Value—Articles imported and exported in Country Ships—Commerce with Foreign Europe—Commerce with the United States of America—Quantities of Tea exported from Canton—Commerce with Cochin-China, Siam, &c.—Articles of Import and Export—Commerce with the Eastern Islands—Commerce with Japan—Commerce with Russia—Price Current of Imports and Exports—Port Charges—Mode of measuring the Ship—Import and Export Duties—Pilotage—Provisions and Refreshments—Articles procurable at Canton, with Directions how to chuse them—Agates—Alum—Amomum Verum—Angustura Bark—Aniseeds, Star—Ben, or Behen—Blood Stones—Camphire—Carmine—Cassia Lignea—Cassia Fistula—Cassia Buds—Cassia Oil—Cassumanar—China Root—China-ware—Cinnabar—Contrayerva—Copper, white—Corundum—Cubebs—Dragon's Blood—Galangal—Gamboge—Ginger—Ginseng—Gold—Human Hair—Horne Skins—Indian Ink—Jet—Lake—Lackered Ware—Mats—Mother of Pearl Articles—Musk—Musk Seed—Nankeens—Onyx—Opal—Ostrich Feathers—Plants, how to preserve—Quicksilver—Rhubarb—Sea-weed—Seeds, how to preserve—Shells—Silk, raw—Silks, wrought—Soy—Sugar-candy—Teas—Tobacco—Toys—Turmeric—Turquoise—Turpentine—Tutenague—Varnish—Vermilion—Ultramarine—Unicorns' Horns—Wanghees—North East Coast of China—Amoy—Chinchew—Chusan—Ningpo—Nankin,

THE south coast of China, from the Gulf of Tonquin to the entrance of Canton river, has several bays and harbours, capable of receiving large ships; but they are not visited by Europeans, in consequence of their exclusion from all ports in the empire except Canton, unless in cases of distress. The principal place is Tienpak, in latitude 12° 22′ North, and longitude 111° 13′ East, where immense quantities of salt are made, and several hundred junks are employed transporting it to Canton and the neighbouring places.

The entrance of the river of Canton is fronted by an Archipelago of islands, extending to the N. E. The southernmost of these is the Great Ladrone, in latitude 21° 57′ North, and longitude 113° 44′ East. The approach to this river is very safe, and there are no hidden dangers. Ships frequently push through the nearest convenient channel for Macao roads, without waiting for a pilot to conduct them.

MACAO belongs to the Portuguese, and is the only settlement possessed by Europeans within the limits of the Chinese empire. The town, which is in latitude 22° 10′ North, and longitude 113° 32′ East, is on the southern extreme of a large island, separated from the continent by a small arm of the sea. The peninsula, upon which the town stands, is connected with the remainder of the island by a long narrow neck of land, not exceeding 100 yards in breadth; across it a wall has been erected, which projects into the water at each end, having a gate and guard-house in the centre for Chinese troops. Beyond this boundary of their possessions the Portuguese are seldom permitted to pass. The extent of their territory, which is completely under the jurisdiction of the Viceroy of Canton, although the Portuguese are permitted to retain the nominal government of the town, is from N. E. to S. W. about three miles, and its breadth not quite a mile.

Macao is a place of some extent; the houses are of stone, constructed on the European plan, but without exterior elegance; the streets are very narrow and irregular. The public buildings consist of churches, convents, and the senate-house; the latter terminates the only spacious and level street in the town. The Governor's house is situated on the beach, opposite the landing place, and commands a beautiful prospect, but is not remarkable for external appearance or interior accommodation. Contiguous to it is the English factory, a plain commodious building; the other factories are in the same style, and all of them surrounded with gardens. The harbour does not admit vessels of burthen; large ships generally anchor six or seven miles off, the town bearing about W. N. W. The town is defended by several strong forts, mounted with heavy cannon, and garrisoned with Portuguese troops, seldom exceeding 250 in number. There are a Portuguese custom-house and quay on the south side of the town, where all ships coming into the bay are obliged to send their boats.

When a ship arrives among the islands, a pilot generally comes on board to carry her into Macao roads. Immediately she is brought to anchor, which is generally about six or seven miles from the town, he proceeds to Macao, to acquaint the Mandarin with what nation she belongs to. Should there be any women on board, application must be made to the Bishop and Synod for permission to send them on shore, as they will not be permitted to proceed to Whampoa in the ship. As soon as the Mandarin is satisfied in his enquiries, he orders off a river pilot, who seldom comes on board until the ship has lain 24 hours in the roads, who brings a chop, or licence, to pass the Bocca Tigris, or mouth of Canton river, and carries the ship to Whampoa.

The Chinese treat the Portuguese very cavalierly on many occasions, exacting duties sometimes in the port, and punishing individuals for crimes committed against the natives; and whenever resistance is attempted against such proceedings, the Mandarin, who commands the Chinese troops at the guard-house, immediately stops the supply of provisions from their market until they quietly submit.

The Portuguese first visited China in 1517, when the Viceroy of Goa sent a squadron of eight ships, under Ferdinand Andrada, laden with merchandise, having on board Thomas Pereira, an Ambassador from Emanuel, King of Portugal. On their arrival at the entrance of the river of Canton, the fleet was stopped, and only two permitted to pass up the river; on board of one was the Ambassador and the Commodore. Andrada was a man of strict honour, so that he soon gained on the Chinese, notwithstanding their natural aversion to strangers. By his exactness and probity he drew them to trade, and brought them to have great confidence in him; but what had the greatest effect, and might have established the commerce of the Portuguese, to the exclusion of all other nations, was his giving notice, a little before his departure, that at such a time he meant to sail, and that if any had demands upon him or any of those belonging to him, they might apply, and receive satisfaction. This was an instance of probity new to the Chinese, but so agreeable, that they made him great professions of friendship, and assured him that they would willingly trade with his nation, in hopes of meeting always with the like usage: but so fair a prospect did not long continue, and even the first had very near proved the last voyage of the Portuguese to

China. The commanders of the ships that were left at the mouth of the river, landed, and began a trade with the natives; but presuming on their power in India, treated the Chinese with great insolence and iniquity. They brought on shore several pieces of cannon, and then took what they pleased at their own rates, and treated with the pirates for such as they had taken prisoners, of whom they made slaves. The Viceroy of the province quickly assembled a great naval force, with which he surrounded the Portuguese squadron, and would infallibly have taken them, if a storm had not arisen, which scattered the Chinese fleet, and enabled the Portuguese to return to Malacca with more profit than honour. The Ambassador Pereira proved the victim of this misconduct; he was confined in prison, where he afterwards died.

It was many years before the Chinese would admit the Portuguese to trade with them; but at length they allowed them to send some ships to the Island of Sanciam, where they were permitted to erect tents on shore for a short space of time, in which they disposed of their merchandise. At length, towards the close of the sixteenth century, a favourable opportunity offered, not only of restoring their commerce, but of procuring a permanent establishment in China. The pirates committed great ravages on the coast, and having acquired a large force, made themselves masters of the port of Macao, and from thence not only blocked up the port of Canton, but also besieged the city. The Mandarins in this distress had recourse to the Portuguese, whose ships were then at the Island of Sanciam. They readily offered their assistance, and not only forced the pirates to raise the siege, but pursued them to Macao, which they took, and where the Chief of the pirates was killed. The Viceroy having made a report to the Emperor of this extraordinary service, he out of gratitude published an edict, by which the Portuguese were to have the Island of Macao, with the power of forming a settlement, which they gladly accepted. They accordingly built a town, and fortified it after the European manner; but the Chinese have effectually provided for their own security, by not allowing them any provisions but what they receive through their means. The possession of this place has been, notwithstanding, extremely beneficial to the Portuguese; for from thence they carried on for very near a century a most beneficial commerce with Japan, by which Macao became one of the richest and most considerable places in their possession; but since their expulsion from Japan, and the interference of other European nations in the commerce with Canton, together with the unsettled state of Siam, Cochin-China, and Tonquin, the place has fallen to decay.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—The following account of goods annually imported is extracted from the Oriental Repertory.

Tin	3000 to 5000 peculs.	Beetle-nut	5000 to 7000 peculs.
Cotton	1500 to 2000 bales.	Olibanum	250 to 350 ditto.
Pepper	5000 to 7500 peculs.	Mona	100 to 150 ditto.
Wax	200 to 250 ditto.	Rose maloes	50 to 75 ditto
Cutch	500 to 700 ditto.	Shark's-fins	300 to 400 ditto.
Black-wood	500 to 800 ditto.	Fish-maws	250 to 350 ditto.
Sandal-wood	3000 to 5000 ditto.	Cassia	100 to 150 ditto.
Red-wood	500 to 800 ditto.	Cow bezoar	5 to 7 ditto.
Opium	100 to 175 chests.	Coral	50 to 70 catties.
Putchock	100 to 250 peculs.	Elephants' teeth	75 to 100 peculs.
Pearl-shells	250 to 350 ditto.	Spices	50 to 75 ditto.
Rattans	7000 to 10,000 bdls.	False amber	100 to 150 ditto.
Sapan-wood	350 to 500 peculs.	Piece-goods	100 to 150 bales.
Birds' nests	50 to 75 ditto.	Pearls, value	50 to 70,000 rupees.

and of silver from 150 to 250 chests, each containing 3000 dollars, chiefly from Manilla.

Exports.—From the same authority is extracted the following account of exports:

Tutenague	8,000 to 12,000 peculs.	White copper	80 to 100 peculs.
Sugar	9,000 to 14,000 ditto.	Camphire	100 to 150 ditto.
Sugar-candy	5,000 to 7,000 ditto.	Silks	2,000 to 2500 pieces.
Alum	1,000 to 1,500 ditto.	Velvets	2,000 to 2500 ditto.
China, in chests	500 to 700 chests.	Hartall	200 to 250 peculs.
Ditto, in rolls	15,000 to 20,000 rolls.	Coloured paper	150,000 sheets.
Coarse teas	1,500 to 2,000 peculs.	White ditto	50,000 ditto.
Fine teas	75 to 100 ditto.	Musk	7 to 9 peculs.
China-root	1,000 to 1,500 ditto.	Iron torches	15,000 in number.
Chonchore	500 to 750 ditto.	False pearls	50 lacs, each 100,000
Dammer	5,000 to 8,000 ditto.	Tinsel	50 to 70 peculs.
Lackered ware	80 to 100 chests.	Gold thread	100 chests.
Kittisols, large	2,000 to 3,000 ditto.	China toys	100 ditto.
Ditto, small	8,000 to 10,000 ditto.	Gold, in shoes	150 to 200 shoes.

No duties are paid to the Senate for goods exported. On imports 8 per cent. except tin and bezoar, which pay only 3 per cent. and opium, which pays 16 dollars per chest to the Senate and Chinese; the latter is paid for conniving at its being landed, as it is a prohibited article. Upwards of 1000 chests have been landed in a year.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

All sorts of provisions, vegetables, and fruits are sent off here in great abundance, as soon as the ship's boat has announced her arrival to the Government. It is not prudent to send the boat on shore, unless the ship is near Macao, and the wind fair for her to run in, as the Ladrones are numerous, and have recently captured two boats with their crews, which were proceeding to Macao for pilots; and 7000 dollars were paid for the ransom of one of them, belonging to the Marquis of Ely East Indiaman.

About thirty miles above Macao is Lintin, where ships of war anchor, as they are not permitted to proceed to Whampoa. This island is remarkable for a high peak, which is in latitude 22° 24 North. The principal village is on the S.W. side of the island, and the anchorage is about 1¼ mile from the beach. The watering-place is half a mile from a village at the foot of the peak, where the stream runs through a bamboo into the casks; but it is of a very indifferent quality. Men of war lying here, generally receive their supplies of provisions from Macao.

BOCCA TIGRIS,

Or mouth of the Tigris, so called from the appearance of one of the islands at its entrance, which is between Anunhoy Fort on the east side, a small semicircular battery, nearly level with the water's edge, mounted with a few guns, and the Whangtong Islands, on the principal or northernmost of which there is a fort with some trees, from whence a Mandarin comes off to examine your chop, and leaves one or two revenue officers on board, who remain till you arrive at Whampoa; and here, if necessary, twenty or thirty small boats are hired to tow the ship, or to be stationed on the shoals in passing up the river. Should it be night-time on reaching the Bocca Tigris, the ship must anchor below the fort till daylight.

About ten miles to the northward, in latitude 22° 55 North, is the Second Bar, where the Company's ships complete their cargoes for Europe; the bar being considered dangerous, as well as another spot about midway between the Second Bar and Whampoa.

WHAMPOA.

The place where the ships anchor, is in latitude 23° 6' North, and is formed on the south side by Danes and French Islands, and to the northward by the eastern part of the island, on which the town of Whampoa is situated, which is low, and sometimes overflowed, and is called Bankshall Island, from its being the spot where bankshalls or storehouses are built to contain the ships' stores, overhaul the rigging, repair casks, &c. which are under the charge of one of the junior officers. The storehouses are built of bamboos and mats; and on a ship leaving Whampoa, are taken down by the comprador, and a fixed sum charged for the materials.

On Danes Island a portion of the ship's crews are occasionally permitted to go on shore for recreation on Sunday evenings, who return at a fixed hour; and for which the English ships pay 12 tales each month. This arrangement took place in 1754, when, in a quarrel between the English and French, a seaman was killed. The French keep on another island, called French Island, where they generally have their bankshalls.

The Commanders of all European ships are allowed, as a great favour, to wear a flag in their boats, which prevents their being stopped at the hoppo, or custom-houses, of which there are several between Whampoa and Canton; but all other boats, whether belonging to ships, or the Chinese, must have a chop, which is renewed at every custom-house in their way up to Canton. It has occasionally happened that some Commanders have abused this favour: this ought carefully to be avoided, more particularly with such a people as the Chinese.

Immediately on a ship's arrival, two hoppo, or custom-house boats are stationed alongside, one on each quarter, to prevent clandestine trade; and no goods are landed, or received on board, without their permission; and they remain with the ship till her departure from the second bar, homeward-bound.

CANTON.

This city is situated on the north side of the river, in latitude 23° 7 North, and longitude 113° 14' East; it is defended towards the water by two high walls, having cannon mounted, and two strong castles built on two islands in the river; on the land-side it is defended by a strong wall and three forts. The city wall is about five miles in circumference, and on the east side has a broad and deep ditch close to it. It has several gates; within side of each is a guard-house, and no European is permitted to enter.

The English factories extend a considerable distance along the banks of the river fronting the city, at about 100 yards distance from the water's side: they consist of large and handsome houses, each having a flagstaff before it, on which is hoisted the flag of the nation to which it belongs. The English factory far surpasses the others, both in elegance and extent; it has a large verandah, reaching nearly down to the water's edge, raised on handsome pillars, paved with square marble slabs, and commanding an extensive view both up and down the river; adjoining to this verandah is the long room, where the Company's table is kept for their supracargoes, to which the Commanders of their ships had formerly free access, but at present have factories of their own, and only visit the Company's by invitation.

The streets in the suburbs are in general very narrow and confined, and paved. The principal one is denominated China-street; it contains nothing but shops, in which are to be met with the productions of every part of the globe, and the merchants are in general extremely civil and attentive. Each trade seems to have a particular street allotted to it; no dwelling-house is to be seen in the suburbs; all are shops, which seldom consist of more than two stories, the lower floor being the place where the goods are deposited for sale, and the rest of the house serving as a warehouse. At night they all retire inside the city.

The river is somewhat broader than the Thames at London Bridge; and for the space of four or five miles opposite Canton, is an extensive wooden town of large vessels and boats, stowed so close together,

that there is scarcely room for a large boat to pass. They are generally drawn up in ranks, with a narrow passage left for vessels to pass and repass. In these vast numbers of families reside, who betake themselves to this mode of living. In the middle of the river, the Chinese junks which trade to the Eastern Islands, Batavia, &c. lie moored head and stern; some of them are of the burthen of 600 tons.

The crews of the Company's ships used to be permitted to pass three days at Canton; but in consequence of their misconduct, and the risks that have been incurred, the liberty is now abolished.

In 1596 the English first turned their thoughts to China, and one or two of their ships were equipped with a view of opening a trade. Queen Elizabeth granted letters of recommendation to the Emperor, in favour of Richard Adam and Thomas Bromfield, merchants and citizens of London. In these letters, besides recommending these merchants, and vouching for the probity of their dealings, the Queen expressed her desire to be informed, through them, of those institutions by which the Empire of China had become so celebrated for the encouragement of trade; and in return offered the fullest protection to the subjects of China, should they be disposed to open a trade to any of the ports in her dominions. This expedition proved unfortunate, the ships having been lost on the outward-bound voyage.

It does not appear that any further attempt was made at a trade with China, to which the Portuguese claimed an exclusive privilege of resorting, till 1634, when a truce, and a permission for a free trade to China, and all places where the Portuguese were settled in India, was agreed to between the Viceroy of Goa and the English President at Surat. This induced many merchants, to whom King Charles I. had granted a licence, to fit out several ships, under the command of Captain Weddell, who thought it sufficient, in consequence of the agreement made at Goa, to bring letters for the Governor of Macao, in order to be effectually assisted in his projected intercourse with the Chinese at Canton. Their reception will best appear from their account of the voyage.

"The Procurador of Maccow soon repaired on board the principal ship of the English, and said, that for matter of refreshing, he would provide them; but that there was a main obstacle to their trading, which was the non-consent of the Chineses, who he pretended held the Portuguese people in miserable subjection. The English determined, however, to discover the river Canton; and fitted out a barge and pinnace, with above fifty men, which after two days came in sight of the mouth of the river, being a very goodly inlet, and utterly prohibited to the Portugals by the Chineses, who do not willingly admit any strangers to the view of it, being the passage and secure harbour for their best jounckes, both of war and merchandise; so that the Portugal traffic to Canton was only in small vessels, through divers narrow-shoaled straits, amongst many broken islands adjoining to the main. They boarded a jouncke, hoping to have found some aboard, that might have stood either of a pilot or interpreter; but finding neither, having used them with all courtesy, dismissed them, contrary to their timorous expectations. After a delay of several days, a small boat made towards them, and having sold some refreshing, signs were made to carry some of the English to Canton, and bring them to the speech of the Mandarins, which the boatmen accepted of; but the next day, the pinnace being under sail, with a fair wind and tide, after having passed by a certain desolate castle, a fleet of about twenty sail of tall jounckes, commanded by the Admiral of the Sea's deputies, passing down from Canton, encountered the English; and in courteous terms desired them to anchor, which accordingly they did, and presently certain of the English went aboard the Chief Mandarine, where were certain negroes, fugitives of the Portugals, that interpreted.

"At first the Chinese began somewhat roughly to expostulate what moved them to come hither, and discover the prohibited goods, and concealed parts and passages of so great a Prince's dominions, and also who were their pilots. To which they replied, that they were come from Europe, to treat of such capitulation, as might conduce to the good of both Princes and subjects, hoping that it might be lawful for them, as well as the inhabitants of Maccow, to exercise a free commerce, paying duties as the others; and as for pilots, they had none, but every one was able by his art to discover more difficult passages than they had

found. The Chinese hereafter began to be more affable, and in conclusion, appointed a small jounce to carry some of them to Canton, if the English would promise that the pinnace should proceed no farther; for though each of these vessels was well furnished with ordnance, and treble manned, yet durst they not all to oppose her in any hostile way. The same night certain of the English left the pinnace, with order to expect their return; and being embarked in a small jouncke of 30 tons, proceeded towards Canton, with intent to deliver a petition to the Viceroy, for obtaining of licence to settle a trade in those parts. The next day they arrived within five leagues of Canton, whither it seems the rumour of their coming, and fear of them, was already arrived; so that they were required, in a friendly manner, to proceed no further, but to repair aboard their own ships, with promise of assistance in the procuring of licence to trade, if they would seek it at Macouw, by the solicitation of some they should find there, and would instantly abandon the river; the which (having satisfied themselves with this discovery, and willing to remove the anxiety which their long absence might breed in the rest of the fleet) they readily performed. In a little time the Portugal's fleet of six small vessels set sail for Japan; upon whose departure it was expected that licence of trade would have been permitted, according as they had still borne in hand the English; but being then freed of their conceived fear, lest Captain Weddell and his men should have surprised their vessels, they instantly flouted the simple credulity (the inseparable badge of folly) of the nation, and at last having assembled a Council of Purpose, sent the English a flat denial. The same day at a consultation called aboard the Admiral (Weddell) to that purpose, Captain Carter delivered to the whole Council, together with the draught of their river, the sum of their attempt, success, and hopes; which being well pondered, it was generally consented that the whole fleet should sail for the river of Canton. They arrived in a few days before the fore-mentioned desolate castle; and being now furnished with some slender interpreters, they soon had speech with divers Mandarins in the King's jouncks, to whom the cause of their arrival was declared, *viz.* to entertain peace and amity with them, to traffic freely as the Portugals did, and to be forthwith supplied for their monies with provisions for their ships, all which those Mandarins promised to solicit with the prime men resident at Canton, and in the meantime desired an expectation of six days, which were granted, and the English ships rode with white ensigns on the poop; but their perfidious friends, the Portugals, had in all that time since the return of the pinnace, so beslandered them to the Chinese, reporting them to be rogues, thieves, beggars, and what not, that they became very jealous of the good meaning of the English; insomuch that, in the night-time, they put forty-six of cast iron ordnance into the fort, lying close to the brink of the river, each piece between six and seven hundred weight, and well proportioned; and after the end of four days, having as they thought, sufficiently fortified themselves, they discharged divers shot, though without hurt, upon one of the barges passing by them, to find out a convenient watering-place. Herewith the whole fleet, being instantly incensed, did, on the sudden, display their bloody ensigns, and weighing their anchors, fell up with the flood, and berthed themselves before the castle, from whence came many shot; yet not any that touched so much as hull or rope; whereupon, not being able to endure their bravadoes any longer, each ship began to play furiously upon them with their broadsides; and after two or three hours, perceiving their cowardly fainting, the boats were landed, with about one hundred men; which sight occasioned them, with great distractions, instantly to abandon the castle, and fly; the boat's crews, in the meantime, without let, entering the same, and displaying His Majesty of England's colours upon the walls, having, the same night, put aboard all their ordnance, fired the council-house, and demolished what they could. The boats of the fleet also seized a jouncke laden with boards and timber, and another with salt. Another vessel of small moment was surprised, by whose boat a letter was sent to the Chief Mandarins at Canton, expostulating their breach of trace, excusing the assailing of the castle, and withal, in fair terms, requiring the liberty of trade. This letter, it seems, was delivered; for the next day a Mandarin of no great note, some time a Portugal Christian, called Paulo Noretty, came towards the ships in a small boat with a white flag, to

whom the English, having laid open the injuries received, and the sincere intent they had to establish fair trade and commerce, and were no way willing (but in their own defence) to oppose the China nation, presented certain gifts, and dismissed him to his masters, who were the Chief Mandarins, riding about a point of land not far from the ships, who, being by him duly informed thereof, returned him again the same night with a small jouncke, and full authority to carry up such as should be appointed, to Canton, there to tender a petition, and to conclude further upon the manner of their future proceedings. Two of the English passed up the river, and the next night arrived at the city, anchoring close under the walls, in sight of the palace of Champin, the Admiral-General, and on the morrow, having procured a petition to be formally drawn up, by the means of the said Noretty, they were called ashore, and passing through a treble guard, and at length coming in sight of the Chiefs assembled, they were willed, according to the custom of the country, to kneel; when the principal holding up the petition at large, extended upon his head, delivered it to Noretty, to carry up to Champin; the contents whereof being so reasonable, as before specified, he presently consented unto, and promised his utmost assistance; blaming the treachery of the Portugals, whom he taxed as authors, by their slanders, of all the precedent inconveniences. They returned from Canton fully satisfied, and hereupon the Chinese guns were landed and delivered into their hands; their jounckes freely dismissed, and a seeming peace on all sides ensued."

This relation shews under what adverse circumstances the English were first introduced into China.

China was again visited in 1673 by an English ship that had been refused admission into Japan. She arrived at Macao September the 13th, and though, from the intrigues of the Portuguese, a factory was not allowed to be established, the vessel was careened, and the cargo landed; but under such restrictions, that trade could only be attempted through the Portuguese; and not having any silver on board, the only medium the Chinese would accept, the sale of the goods was partial, and their purchases inconsiderable. This led to a more intimate knowledge of the Chinese trade. In 1677 a factory was established at Amoy, and in 1678 the Viceroy of Canton offered the English at Bantam permission to trade; in consequence of which, a vessel was dispatched with a small cargo: but the Portuguese at Macao, by bribing the Viceroy, succeeded in preventing their obtaining any part of the trade of the port. In 1680 the Tartars having driven the Chinese from Amoy, the Company's factory was destroyed, and their servants escaped to Tonquin and Bantam. For several years all Europeans were excluded from trading with China; but on the Tartars having succeeded in subduing the whole of the provinces, the Emperor in 1685 issued an edict, permitting a trade with Europeans. In 1699 two ships were sent from England to China, under the management of supracargoes; and in the following year the English obtained permission to trade at Chusan, on payment of 2 per cent. in full of all duties, and a rent of five tales per month for a house and warehouses. In 1702 an order arrived from the Emperor to quit the port, which was accordingly done, and the Company's servants retired to Batavia. An attempt was made to re-establish the factory at Amoy in 1702, but without success. Ships occasionally visited this place and Chusan; but the oppressions and extortions they were subject to, induced the Company to relinquish the trade altogether.

On the union of the two East India Companies in London, the attempt to open a trade with China was renewed, and the Government of that country being settled, permission was obtained for establishing a factory, and soon after an Imperial edict was issued, directing that Canton should be the only port in the empire allotted for commerce with Europeans.

In the early period of the English trade to Canton, their business was transacted with the Chinese merchants resident on the spot; but there was then no association amongst these merchants, and the Europeans were at liberty to make their bargains with any Chinese merchant resident at Canton. The principal ones are called Hong-merchants; and some one of them was required by the Chinese Government to be security for the payment of the accustomed duties, and for the good behaviour of the Europeans during the time the ship continued in China; and although a ship, in default of a cargo, was

allowed to remain till the succeeding year, yet in general the Europeans departed with the ships the same season they arrived. In those times the East India Company employed different supracargoes for their different ships, without mutual connexion; sometimes there being five supracargoes in the same commission for two ships, and sometimes three supracargoes for one ship; but the several commissions were as much distinct from each other as they were from the agents of foreign companies.

In 1758 the Company changed their system, and instead of several commissions, they appointed one general council of all the supracargoes for conducting the whole of the Company's trade at Canton; and the four senior are termed the President and Select Committee, and certain members of this council were to remain in China, after the departure of the ships, to prepare the cargoes of the succeeding year. But as the supracargoes went to Macao, after the sailing of all the ships, they were obliged to leave the Company's treasure at Canton under the charge of the Chinese, who never abused this trust. About the same time another alteration had taken place in the mode of transacting business at Canton, viz. by trading more directly with the country merchant who brought his goods to Canton; although from his ignorance of the English language, in a jargon of which the business of Canton is transacted, the agency of a Hong-merchant was requisite as well as for the security to Government, that the duties should be paid, and for shipping goods, which can only be done in the name of the Hong-merchant, who is security for the ship.

It may easily be perceived that inasmuch as this new mode was beneficial to the European, it must be hurtful to the Chinese Hong-merchants, who were security to Government; for although at the opening of the trade to China, it appears the Chinese Government would have received the duties at Canton immediately from the Europeans, yet his ignorance of their modes of transacting business had induced him rather to pay his duties through the agency of the Hong-merchant, and long established custom had sanctioned the mode at Canton, though at Limpo the English paid their own duties. The Hong-merchants at Canton were the persons from whom the Mandarins exacted presents, so that their situation necessarily exposed them to great expences, for which they were debarred from receiving any equivalent by the immediate traffic with the country merchants; as the agency with the country merchant was confined to few individuals, and these individual Hong-merchants became little more than brokers between the European and country merchant.

In 1759 the Company's resident supracargoes sent a small vessel to Tiensin, the seaport of Pekin, with a remonstrance to the Emperor on the grievances which the Europeans suffered; in consequence of which, certain Canton Hong-merchants were thereupon appointed a Cong-Hong, or Company, with whom only the Europeans were to transact business at Canton; and all business transacted by Europeans by others than this association, or Cong-Hong, became contrary to law, except with licensed shopkeepers in one single street, which was separated by a gate from the rest of Canton, only open to the wharf on the banks of the river where the European factories are situated.

At first the Hong-merchants traded jointly; for although at the time the Europeans declared that they would transact no business with them conjointly, yet their separate transactions were communicated to each other, and concluded in the Cong-Hong. In 1770, on application of the supracargoes, supported by a large sum of money, the Cong-Hong was abolished; however, since that period the Hong merchants, or members who constituted the Cong-Hong, have continued to transact business on their separate individual accounts, though they still remain a body, and assemble for purposes of a general concern, such as defraying the expences of presents, &c. But in course of time, by mutual consent among themselves, before this change took place in 1770, the members of the Cong-Hong also transacted business separately for their individual concern, and in this capacity became again the broker between the European and the country merchant, as before. By laxity of regulation, other Chinese beside Hong-merchants have come to transact business with Europeans: but still all such transactions are, in the eye of the law, illicit and

contraband; and as no goods can be shipped but by a Hong-merchant, all others trade in the name, and under the protection of some particular one of them, who receives a consideration on that account.

At this period a large sum of money was owing by the Chinese to the English merchants in India, and other British subjects, which had been lent at various times, to the extent of 3,808,075 Spanish dollars. The Chinese debtors failed; in consequence of which, representations were made to the Emperor. He observed, that probably Europeans might not be informed of the laws of the empire, which forbid foreigners making any loan to his subjects; and although he cautioned them in the strongest manner to avoid such practices in future, he directed enquiry to be made. The result was, the debts due by two of the Hong-merchants being adjusted, with interest to the end of the season 1778–80, were found to amount to about £400,000, one half of which was immediately lopped off, and payment of the remainder was ordered to be made in ten years, in equal instalments, but without interest. The funds for the payment were not drawn from the Hong-merchants, but from a tax laid for the purpose upon the European trade with China.

In 1784 the European commerce with Canton was endangered in consequence of a Chinese having been killed by a gun fired from the Lady Hughes country ship, in a salute to the Hoppo on coming down the river. Every European was deemed responsible for this accident; all trade was stopped, and the foreign factories settled at Canton uniting with the English, thought it necessary to prepare for defence. The gunner, who had concealed himself, was at last found, and delivered up, under some indirect assurances of personal safety; notwithstanding which, he was immediately put to death. It appears probable that the supracargoes were induced, under the expectation of being able to commute the punishment for a sum of money, to deliver up the man, in which they were deceived.

The commerce of Europeans with China has always been exposed to oppression and insult. In 1792 the English Government, under the impression that these injuries were unknown to the Emperor, sent an embassy to China, and Lord Macartney, formerly Governor of Madras, was selected for the mission. He sailed September 26, 1792, and arrived at the mouth of the Yellow River in August, 1793. He was received with great politeness, and handsomely entertained by order of the Emperor; but soon after the ceremony of the audience was over, and before he had an opportunity of entering upon the business of his mission, it was intimated to him that the approach of winter would be prejudicial to his health, and that orders were given to convey him and his retinue to Canton. With this intimation he was obliged to comply, and the object of his mission was thereby rendered unattainable.

In 1801 the trade was interrupted in consequence of a seaman on board His Majesty's ship Madras firing on a Chinese, who he supposed was going to cut the ship's cable; the wound afterwards proved mortal, and a discussion took place with the Chinese Government, who at last agreed to have the affair tried in the Supreme Court of Justice of Canton, and allowed the seaman to remain in custody of his own commander. The Chinese lingered upwards of 40 days, the period allowed by the Chinese laws to constitute murder. The Court, on the man's death, sent a message that the seaman might be punished according to the laws of his own country, whereupon trade resumed its usual channel.

In 1806, in consequence of an expedition having been sent from Bengal to garrison Macao with British troops, the trade was stopped; but the Chinese Government being satisfied with the return of the troops to India, it resumed its usual course, and has since continued without any material interruption.

COINS.

Accounts are kept in tales, mace, candareens, and cash, thus divided: 10 cash 1 candareen; 10 candareens 1 mace; 10 mace 1 tale.

There is but one kind of money made in China, which is called cash; it is of a base metal, cast, not coined, and very brittle; it is round, about the size of an English farthing, marked on one side with

Chinese characters, rather raised at the edges, with a square hole in the middle. They are usually strung, 100 on a string; but they rise and fall according to the quantity in the market, varying from 750 to 1000 cash for a tale. Their chief use is in making small payments amongst the lower classes of the people.

Spanish dollars are the principal coin current, but other silver coins are occasionally met with. For small change they cut the coins into pieces, and weigh them, for which purpose every merchant carries scales and weights with him, put up in small portable wooden cases; they are made somewhat after the plan of the English steelyards, and are called by the Chinese a dotchin. For the purpose of cutting the silver, they have a pair of scissars; and some are so dexterous, that they will cut the quantity required, without having occasion to cut a second time. All dollars which pass through the Hong-merchants' hands bear their stamp, or chop, so that by frequent exchanges, the dollars become soon mutilated, and are then cut up for small change, or melted into ingots. All duties are paid in sycee or pure silver.

In the East India Company's accounts the tale is reckoned at 6s. 8d. sterling; but its intrinsic value is according to the price paid for silver in London. The following table shews the value of the tale when Spanish dollars are from 5s. 3d. to 6s. 6d. per ounce:

Price.	Value of a Tale.	Price.	Value of a Tale.	Price.	Value of a Tale.	Price.	Value of a Tale.
s. d.	s. d. dec.	s. d.	s. d. dec.	s. d.	s. d. dec.	s. d.	s. d. dec.
5 3.....6	4 104	5 7.....6	8 936	5 11.....7	1 758	6 3.....7	6 590
5 4.....6	5 312	5 8.....6	10 144	6 0.....7	2 966	6 4.....7	7 798
5 5.....6	6 520	5 9.....6	11 342	6 1.....7	4 174	6 5.....7	9 006
5 6.....6	7 728	5 10.....7	0 550	6 2.....7	5 382	6 6.....7	10 214

At China they divide things decimally, as in buying gold or silver, which is not considered as money, but merchandise; it is esteemed by the hundredth part, and their touching needles (by which they try the fineness of gold and silver) are marked and numbered accordingly. The finest silver amongst them is 100 touch, called sycee, that is without alloy. In England silver standard is 11 oz. 2 dwts. fine, and 18 dwts. alloy, making pure silver 12 oz. The following table is calculated, supposing the China assay to be of equal goodness with the English, that is 100 touch, or sycee, and 12 ounces English.

English Silver compared and adjusted with China Silver, from 4 to superfine, or 12 oz.

English Assay.	China Assay.	English Assay.	China Assay.	English Assay.	China Assay.	English Assay.	China Assay.
Oz. Dwts.	Touch Parts	Oz. Dwts.	Touch Parts	Oz. Dwts.	Touch Parts	Oz. Dwts.	Touch Parts
12 0	100 0	11 5	93 18	10 10	87 12	9 15	81 6
11 19	99 14	11 4	93 8	10 9	87 2	9 14	80 20
11 18	99 4	11 3	92 22	10 8	86 16	9 13	80 10
11 17	98 18	11 2	92 12	10 7	86 06	9 12	80 0
11 16	98 8	11 1	92 2	10 6	85 20	9 11	79 14
11 15	97 22	11 0	91 16	10 5	85 10	9 10	79 4
11 14	97 12	10 19	91 6	10 4	85 0	9 9	78 18
11 13	97 2	10 18	90 20	10 3	84 14	9 8	78 8
11 12	96 16	10 17	90 10	10 2	84 4	9 7	77 22
11 11	96 6	10 16	90 0	10 1	83 18	9 6	77 12
11 10	95 20	10 15	89 14	10 0	83 8	9 5	77 2
11 9	95 10	10 14	89 4	9 19	82 22	9 4	76 16
11 8	95 0	10 13	88 18	9 18	82 12	9 3	76 6
11 7	94 14	10 12	88 8	9 17	82 2	9 2	75 20
11 6	94 4	10 11	87 22	9 16	81 16	9 1	75 10

The Chinese will sometimes take silver several pennyweights under full fine for sycee silver, but generally one pennyweight: thus English silver of 11 oz. 19 dwts. and 1 dwt. alloy will pass for sycee silver.

WEIGHTS.

The great weights are the pecul, catty, and tale, thus divided:

16 tales make 1 catty, or avoirdupois 1 lb. 5 oz. 3 dr. 333 dec.
100 catties.... 1 pecul, or ditto .....133 lbs. 5 oz. 5 dr. 333 dec.

All goods are weighed at China; likewise provision, as milk, fowls, hogs, &c.

In delivering a cargo, English weights and scales are used, and afterwards turned into China peculs and catties. If the weights and scales are brought from Canton, care should be taken that the beam is not longer on one side than the other; some of them have holes or notches at each end of the beam, by which they can, by hanging the scales in one or other, diminish or increase the weight considerably.

The weights are in general light, particularly those they sell by, as have been found by weighing tutenague, raw silk, &c. Many of their dotchins are loaded in the pea; above all, it is particularly necessary to pay attention to the weighing man, who is very apt to jerk the scale down, or pull it to him before he cries the weight, and that often erroneous. If a person delivering a cargo, will take the trouble of putting in the weights himself, and balancing the scales, the benefit that will be derived by the cargo turning out well, will be an ample compensation for his trouble.

Small Weights.—Gold and silver are also weighed by the tale and catty; 100 tales are reckoned to weigh 120 oz. 16 dwts troy, which make the tale equal to 579,8 dec. troy.

The Chinese arithmetic is mechanical. To find the aggregate of numbers, a machine is in universal use with all descriptions of people. By this machine, which is called a swanpan, arithmetical operations are rendered palpable. It consists of a frame of wood, about an inch deep, and of various sizes, from 4 to 12 inches long, by 2 to 6 broad, divided into two compartments by a bar down the middle; through this bar at right angles are inserted a number of parallel wires, and on each wire, in one compartment, are five moveable balls, and in the other two. These wires may be considered as the ascending and descending power of a numeration table, proceeding in a tenfold proportion; so that if a ball upon any of the wires in the larger compartment be placed against the middle bar, and called unity, or one, a ball on the next wire above it will represent ten; and one on the next, one hundred; so, also, a ball on the wire next below that expressing unity, will be one tenth; the next lower, one hundredth; and the third, one thousandth part of an unit: and the balls on the corresponding wires in the smaller compartment will be five, fifty, five hundred, five tenths, five hundredths, five thousandths; the value or power of each of these, in the smaller division, being always five times as much as those in the larger. This system, from its apparent ease and simplicity, is much admired, but is subject to error; and a person commonly conversant with arithmetic, will make more progress, and be more correct than the most skilful of the Chinese with the swanpan.

MEASURES.

The long measure in use at Canton is called the covid, or cubit, it is divided into ten punts, and is about 14¼ English inches. There are several measures answering to our foot.

The foot of the mathematical tribunal is 137,7 dec. French lines, or 13⅛ English inches.
The builders' foot, called kongpu, is ....143,1 .....ditto .....12⅞ ditto.
The tailors' and tradesmen's foot is.....150 .....ditto .....13½ ditto.
The foot used by engineers is .....141,7 .....ditto .....12,⅞ ditto.

The li contains 180 fathoms, each of 10 feet, of the last-mentioned length, which make the li 1897 English feet, and 192 lis measure a mean degree of the meridian nearly; but the European missionaries divide the degree into 200 lis, each li 1826 English feet.

COMMERCE OF CANTON.

The external commerce of Canton is very considerable, and may be classed under the following heads:

I. That carried on with Great Britain; this includes the imports and exports on account of the East India Company, and the private trade of the commanders and officers of their ships.

II. That carried on with the British settlements in India, in ships commonly called Country ships, the property of European resident merchants or natives, at the different Presidencies.

III. That carried on with the other European powers, who, previous to the war, which commenced in 1793, had factories at Canton, but which are at present abandoned, *viz.*

France.	Denmark.	Portugal.	Spain.
Holland.	Ostend.	Sweden.	Leghorn.

The trade carried on with the United States of America is blended in the Chinese accounts with that of all other foreigners, except the English from Europe and India. The account of their imports and exports is kept separate.

IV. That carried on in their own junks or vessels to the Coasts of Siam, Cochin-China, Tonquin, Japan, the numerous islands to the eastward, and to Batavia.

The commerce of Canton, immense as it is, is carried on with an astonishing regularity, and in no part of the world can business be transacted with so much ease and dispatch to the foreign merchant. The cargoes imported are all weighed on board, and the duties paid by the purchaser, who is generally one of the Hong or Security Merchants, expressly licensed by the Chinese Government to deal with Europeans. Their number is very limited, being in 1793 twelve, and in 1808 fourteen, *viz.*:

Puankequa.	Ponqua.	Manhop.	Fatqua.
Mowqua.	Gnewqua.	Poonequa.	Fonqua.
Puiqua.	Consequa.	Lyqua.	
Chunqua.	Exchin.	Kinqua	

With these merchants, who are mostly men of great property, and upright and liberal in their transactions, the supracargoes transact all the Company's concerns; they dispose of the goods imported, and purchase the various commodities of which the homeward cargoes consist. At the close of the season they are generally much indebted to the Company. In the four years, 1807 to 1810 inclusive, the balances were

1807	£780,150	1809	£937,798
1808	522,741	1810	491,926

These amounts do not include the imports remaining on hand, nor of the teas unshipped, which generally are near half the amount of the sums owing by the merchants.

The trade, as has already been observed, has, from trifling causes, experienced several interruptions. The following statement of the immense property at the mercy of the Chinese, for a single season, will shew the necessity of cultivating their present good disposition towards us.

The balance of the Company's cash at the end of the season may be estimated at	£400,000
The Company's investment (though it has been much larger) may be considered	1,400,000
The Company's ships from Europe at least	400,000

forming a total of £2,000,000 sterling, exclusive of Country ships, the property of the commanders and officers of the service, and the balances due to merchants resident in India and in Europe.

COMPANY'S ESTABLISHMENT.

The following is a list of persons on the Establishment, as it stood the 28th of April, 1812, with the estimated amount of each share of the commission allowed, on an average, clear of all deductions.

John Fullarton Elphinstone,	President of the Select Committee	£8,550 per annum.
John William Roberts	Second Member of ditto	7,124 ditto.
Thomas Charles Pattle	Third Member of ditto	7,124 ditto.
William Parry	Fourth Member of ditto	7,124 ditto.
William Bramston	Supracargo	5,936 ditto.
Joseph Cotton, Junior	ditto	5,343 ditto.
Sir George T. Staunton, Bart.	ditto	4,629 ditto.
Theophilus John Metcalfe	ditto	4,036 ditto.
James Brabazon Urmston	ditto	2,134 ditto.
James Molony	ditto	1,916 ditto.
James Thomas Roberts	ditto	1,542 ditto.
William Fraser	ditto	1,542 ditto.

Sir George Staunton is also Chinese Interpreter to the Factory, for which he has a salary of £500 a year, exclusive of his share of the commission.

Francis Hastings Toone, William Bosanquet, and William H. C. Plowden, having been above seven years in the service, without being appointed supracargoes, are each allowed £1,200 a year.

William Baynes, having been above five years in the service, without being appointed a supracargo, is allowed £800 a year.

Charles Millet, and Frederick Irwin Huddleston, Writers, are each allowed £100 a year.

Alexander Pearson and John Livingstone, Surgeons to the Factory. The former is allowed £1,200 and the latter £1,000 a year.

Samuel Ball, Inspector of Teas. The allowance to him at present is £2,000 a year, but in April, 1814, it will be increased to £2,500 a year.

John Reeves, Assistant Inspector of Teas, is allowed £700 a year.

Robert Morrison, who acts occasionally as Chinese Interpreter to the Factory, is allowed 2,000 dollars a year for instructing the junior servants in that language.

The whole of the salaries come out of the commission, which is two per cent. on the sale amount, part of which is included in the general expences of the homeward trade, and the remainder is made up in England. The sum paid from the home treasury during the years 1793 to 1809 inclusive, were

1793	£69,000	1799	£125,000	1805	£103,930
1794	50,800	1800	78,000	1806	101,387
1795	63,000	1801	65,000	1807	86,000
1796	74,000	1802	72,000	1808	90,600
1797	76,000	1803	81,000	1809	70,000
1798	77,000	1804	86,000		

forming a total of £1,368,717, on an average £80,513 per annum.

The residence of the Company's servants at the Factory is only during the season of their intercourse with the Chinese merchants, for receiving and paying for the produce of the country. When the business of the season is finished, and the ships laden, and dispatched on their return to England, the supracargoes retire from the Factory to Macao, where they remain till the opening of the ensuing season.

COMPANY'S IMPORTS FROM ENGLAND.

The following is a statement of the prime cost of the merchandise and treasure in the years 1781-2 to 1809-10 inclusive, specifying the amount of woollens in each year; likewise that of other merchandise and bullion, together with the profit or loss arising from the sale thereof in each year.

Years.	Woollens.	Other Goods and Stores.	Bullion.	Total.	Profit.	Loss.
	£	£	£	£	£	£
1781-2	129,179	12,555	——	141,734	——	3,830
1782-3	94,992	11,133	——	106,125	——	273
1783-4	113,763	6,322	——	120,085	——	15,813
1784-5	146,741	30,739	——	177,480	——	11,928
1785-6	224,612	45,492	704,259	974,363	——	15,303
1786-7	202,023	43,507	694,960	940,490	——	31,407
1787-8	323,107	45,335	626,896	995,338	——	22,074
1788-9	335,392	65,806	469,409	870,607	——	36,867
1789-90	354,717	115,764	714,233	1,184,714	——	39,913
1790-1	431,385	109,788	——	541,173	——	13,509
1791-2	484,705	144,464	378,507	1,007,676	——	——
Total	2,840,616	630,905	3,588,264	7,059,785	——	190,917
1792-3	587,421	160,485	——	747,906	14,045	——
1793-4	628,582	206,572	——	835,154	——	1,323
1794-5	642,405	178,192	——	820,597	——	107,425
1795-6	527,020	167,580	38,494	733,094	——	62,393
1796-7	402,827	141,668	201,530	746,025	——	47,373
1797-8	402,376	147,285	414,280	964,441	——	38,421
1798-9	709,650	158,370	505,076	1,373,096	——	44,624
1799-0	746,130	165,903	141,437	1,053,470	——	71,954
1800-1	801,536	221,738	——	1,023,274	——	51,715
1801-2	930,913	225,563	——	1,156,476	——	87,656
1802-3	1,027,061	178,441	573,814	1,779,316	——	130,654
1803-4	1,047,753	274,060	188,782	1,510,595	——	91,722
1804-5	915,984	235,319	202,281	1,353,584	——	158,015
1805-6	1,042,795	181,765	201,270	1,425,830	——	101,538
1806-7	1,032,099	217,245	——	1,249,344	8,354	——
1807-8	977,796	223,987	——	1,201,783	27,854	——
1808-9	877,569	217,748	——	1,095,317	——	12,233
Total	13,300,017	3,302,321	2,466,964	19,069,302	50,253	1,007,048

Previous to the Commutation Act, which took place in 1784, the imports from England were small, and (what is extraordinary) were difficult to sell. The Chinese received them with reluctance, and upon some occasions, as the only mode of payment the Company had to offer. Subsequent to that period, means have been found to impress upon the minds of the Chinese, that Great Britain could not continue to receive teas to such an immense value, unless the Chinese would encourage her manufactures and produce in return, and that commercial profits to the Chinese would attach equally to the import as well as to the export trade. Whether the present disposition of the Chinese arises from these principles, or from any other cause, it is a fact that the exports of the Company are considerably increased, and that there is reason to hope they may be yet further extended. Nor is this increasing sale of woollens the result of compulsion on the part of the Company's supracargoes towards the merchants: so far from it, the latter seek these articles with an avidity which every year produces an increased demand, and the purchases which were formerly made by the Chinese as of necessity, have now become a matter of choice.

The principal articles imported into China by the Company are cloths, long ells, camblets, lead, and tin.

The manufacture of the first article is carried on in so many places in England, that the Company meet with no difficulty in procuring a supply sufficient to satisfy any increased demand that may arise. They make their purchases gradually, and the qualities are the best that can be procured; the tradesmen are paid punctually; in short, the system is regular and uniform. The chief consumption in China of woollens is at Pekin, or farther northward; it is therefore impossible to carry on, much less to extend the sale, except the most implicit confidence with regard to us subsist in the minds of the Chinese. The French at one period having procured English packages, and made up their bales in a manner exactly conformable to those of the Company, imposed a considerable quantity of their cloths upon the Chinese for a season; but the fraud was soon discovered, and they could not afterwards sell an entire bale, nay scarcely a single piece, without the most scrupulous examination. The Company's woollens meet with a very different reception. The Chinese merchants at Canton will take them according to their invoice; and there is every reason to believe that the bales under the Company's mark, after being transported to an immense distance, and passing through a number of hands, are received every where with the most perfect confidence, and are never opened until they reach the shop of the person who sells for actual use.

The manufacture of long ells is almost confined to a single county, but the demand for them has greatly increased. The camblets formerly exported by the Company were unsaleable, owing to the Dutch having a peculiar mode of preparing that article more suitable to the taste of the Chinese. It was not till 1789 the English manufacturers discovered the secret, which they have done so completely, that their goods are preferred to those of the Dutch. These articles the Company reserve to themselves.

In 1789 the Company entered into an engagement with the proprietors of the tin mines in Cornwall, to send annually 800 tons of tin to China at a stipulated price. The increase and decrease of the tin have arisen from the circumstance of the County of Cornwall being enabled to obtain a higher price in Europe for the commodity than formerly, in consequence of which the stipulated quantity of 800 tons has not been regularly delivered to the Company.

The following is an account of the quantities of long ells, cloths, camblets, lead, and tin exported by the East India Company to China in the years 1785 to 1810 inclusive:

Years.	Long Ells. Pieces.	Cloths. Pieces.	Camblets. Pieces.	Lead. Tons.	Tin. Tons.	Years.	Long Ells. Pieces	Cloths. Pieces	Camblets. Pieces.	Lead. Tons.	Tin. Tons.
1785	60,000	4,534	332	2,040	none	1798	216,070	7,119	6,020	900	788
1786	60,738	3,491	200	1,830	none	1799	213,060	7,174	11,400	1,100	646
1787	107,000	3,879	none	1,720	none	1800	240,340	7,130	11,600	2,364	615
1788	107,050	4,122	740	1,590	55	1801	261,422	7,244	23,400	3,150	251
1789	112,320	4,608	1,200	1,610	783	1802	270,620	9,835	23,230	999	367
1790	127,860	6,393	1,797	700	1,209	1803	279,040	9,822	30,270	1,888	594
1791	150,000	6,456	2,340	710	1,200	1804	266,780	9,667	21,800	860	837
1792	161,724	6,542	3,760	925	1,209	1805	268,240	9,567	24,010	800	209
1793	177,300	7,088	5,120	1,600	1,230	1806	272,200	9,954	22,150	1,200	444
1794	200,000	7,193	5,000	400	580	1807	269,520	9,081	21,304	1,683	671
1795	174,000	4,462	4,480	785	1,001	1808	288,840	8,827	22,570	1,800	800
1796	124,000	3,196	6,640	685	1,025	1809	208,760	5,918	20,160	2,215	378
1797	143,980	3,144	2,086	200	1,202	1810	210,900	6,466	22,320	1,200	30

The statement of profit and loss in the former account is only apparent, as the Company add 10 per cent. to the real cost of the goods in England to cover contingent expences, such as insurance, freight, interest of money, &c. which being deducted from the amount, exhibits a profit instead of a loss.

COMPANY'S EXPORTS TO ENGLAND.

The following is a statement of the prime cost of goods shipped from Canton on account of the East India Company, in the years 1793–4 to 1809–10 inclusive: the customs payable thereon in England; the freight and demurrage; the charges of merchandise, calculated at the rate of 5 per cent on the sale amount; the total of prime cost and charges; the sale amount of goods; and the profit arising from the trade in each year during the above period:

Years.	Prime Cost and Charges.	Customs.	Freight and Demurrage.	Charges of Merchandise	Total Cost and Charges.	Amount Sales.	Profit on the Trade.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
1793–4	1,336,739	41,284	418,028	125,729	1,921,780	2,514,594	592,814
1794–5	1,595,493	27,322	372,346	143,072	2,138,233	2,861,424	723,189
1795–6	1,408,087	25,802	472,487	148,636	2,055,012	2,972,664	917,652
1796–7	1,285,765	20,341	521,074	133,417	1,960,597	2,668,346	707,749
1797–8	1,292,803	18,589	601,413	128,895	2,041,700	2,577,890	536,190
1798–9	1,601,606	43,727	763,404	182,614	2,591,351	3,652,283	1,060,932
1799–0	1,830,569	7,439	786,507	189,749	2,814,264	3,794,982	980,718
1800–1	1,783,254	7,334	697,474	180,819	2,668,881	3,616,381	947,500
1801–2	1,669,103	9,963	723,510	176,970	2,579,546	3,539,404	959,858
1802–3	1,741,007	6,822	719,660	187,663	2,655,152	3,753,252	1,098,100
1803–4	1,771,947	5,985	732,112	181,483	2,691,527	3,629,677	938,150
1804–5	1,559,286	7,962	618,720	165,375	2,351,343	3,307,495	956,152
1805–6	1,706,225	7,629	644,558	187,035	2,545,447	3,740,699	1,195,252
1806–7	1,677,652	7,484	659,497	185,452	2,530,085	3,709,046	1,178,961
1807–8	1,688,470	1,389	721,437	192,338	2,603,634	3,846,756	1,243,122
1808–9	1,722,000	7,951	746,622	199,414	2,675,987	3,988,267	1,312,280
1809–10	1,487,060	18,501	687,168	186,154	2,378,883	3,723,116	1,344,233
Total.....	27,157,066	265,524	10,886,017	2,894,815	41,203,422	57,896,274	16,692,852

The commercial charges included in the above account of prime costs, amounted, during that period, to £719,209; these charges include the salaries and accommodation of the supracargoes and others employed in the business, and the expences attending the receipt and delivery of the goods imported and exported; but they do not include the whole of the emoluments of the supracargoes, they being in part only, and the remainder is made up in England, in full of the commission allowed to them on the sale of the goods. The expences during the above period were as follow:

1792–3	£37,813	1798–9	£35,550	1804–5	£49,065
1793–4	41,271	1799–1800	37,886	1805–6	42,599
1794–5	42,687	1800–1	43,384	1806–7	40,236
1795–6	37,434	1801–2	45,191	1807–8	41,672
1796–7	46,755	1802–3	47,028	1808–9	45,310
1797–8	40,066	1803–4	45,062		

amounting to about 1¼ per cent. on the amount of the Company's imports and exports from Canton.

The freight and demurrage charged upon the sales comprehend the whole amount paid both for the outward and homeward cargoes. The charges are by estimate 5 per cent. on the gross amount of the sales, and may be considered as a set-off against the Company's general expences.

From the foregoing statements it appears that the invoice amount of goods imported by the Company into Canton from England in 17 years, 1792–3 to 1808–9 inclusive, was £16,602,338
The prime cost of goods exported from Canton to England during the same period was 27,157,066

The exports from Canton exceeded the imports 10,554,728
Treasure imported into Canton from England during the same period was 2,460,964

Balance *in favour* of Canton in 17 years £13,021,692

being on an average £765,892 per annum.

It also appears that the prime cost of goods imported into England from Canton on account of the East India Company, including commercial charges, in 17 years, 1793–4 to 1809–10 inclusive, was £27,157,066
That the above goods sold at the Company's sales in London for 57,896,274

The sale amount exceeded the prime cost during that period £30,739,208

which may be considered clear gain to the nation, and thus appropriated:

Customs paid from the Company's Treasury on the goods £265,524
Freight and demurrage estimated to have been paid on them 10,886,017
Charges of merchandise, estimated at 5 per cent. on the sale amount 2,894,815
Balance remaining to the Company, after paying all costs and charges 16,692,852

exclusive of several losses which occurred in the Company's shipping on the homeward bound voyage, the prime cost of which, including commercial charges, amounted to £344,579.

The above amount of duties is not the entire revenue derived from the trade with China, the greatest part being paid by the purchasers on clearing the goods for home consumption. The customs and excise duties received during the same period were as follow:

Net duties, after payment of drawbacks, &c. and deducting the above £265,524 ..... £2,980,956
Excise duties on teas, which include the duty on private trade £29,309,643

forming a total of £32,290,599, which, added to the above £30,739,208, forms a beneficial total to the nation, of £63,029,807, on an average of 17 years, £3,707,636 per annum.

The articles which composed the foregoing amount of sales, £57,896,274, were as follow:

Teas	£55,160,230	China wrought silks	£16,408
Nankeens	848,425	China-ware	82,001

The principal part of the remaining £1,788,863 consisted of China raw silk; but the exact amount cannot be ascertained, the sales being blended with the Bengal raw silk.

In the four years, 1776 to 1779, the state of the Company's trade with China was on an average:

Prime cost, including commercial charges ..... £429,366 per ann.
Customs paid from the Company's Treasury on the goods ..... 241,937 ditto.
Freight and demurrage, estimated to have been paid on them ..... 163,679 ditto.
Charges of merchandise, estimated at 5 per cent. on the sale amount ..... 59,518 ditto.

Forming a total of cost and charges ..... 894,500 ditto.
The amount of the sales were ..... 1,113,024 ditto.

Leaving a balance to the Company, after paying all charges, of ..... £218,524 ditto.

which, compared with the account of the four years, 1806 to 1809, will shew the vast increase in this trade.

IMPORTS FROM ENGLAND IN PRIVATE TRADE.

The following articles form the investments of the Commanders and Officers of the Honourable Company's ships from England.

Lead.—Considerable quantities of this article used to be imported in private trade, and sold at 5¼ to 6 Spanish dollars per pecul; but some lead-mines have been recently discovered in the province of Houquang, which have proved extremely productive, and from whence the tea country has been partly supplied, on more moderate terms than the English lead can be effected at from Canton.

Skins.—Large quantities were formerly brought out; but of late years the demand has much abated.

Sea-otter skins should be large and good, and when perfect, sell at 4 to 6 dollars each.

Beaver skins from 36 to 40 inches by 24 to 30 inches, when perfect, from 4 to 5 dollars each.

Rabbit skins, of large sizes, and in good order, from 25 to 30 Spanish dollars per 100.

Seal skins, when large and good, from 100 to 120 Spanish dollars per 100.

Ginseng.—Previous to the independence of America, large quantities used to be carried to China by the Commanders and Officers, and generally sold well; since that period, the market has been mostly supplied by the American ships: the price fluctuates much, from 40 to 80 Spanish dollars per pecul.

Smalts.—This article forms a part of almost every Commander's investment; the best quality FFC, sells at 60 to 90 dollars a pecul; FC, or 2d sort, from 25 to 40 dollars per pecul.

Prussian Blue.—This should not cost more than 5s. 6d. per lb. nor less than 3s. The price varies, taking one kind with the other, from 100 to 150 Spanish dollars per pecul.

Scarlet Cuttings.—These are generally in demand, more particularly the finer sorts, and are from 100 to 120 Spanish dollars per pecul. The Chinese have a mode of extracting the colour from them.

Cochineal.—For this market the grey sort is equally esteemed as the large black grain. A small quantity will overstock the market; the price fluctuates from 400 to 1,200 dollars per pecul.

Window Glass.—This article sometimes sold to advantage; but the Company having recently imported it, the price has fallen considerably. The Company's cost, including the package, 34¼ tales per chest of 200 square feet, and they could not obtain more than 21¼ tales per chest.

Cambleys.—This article the Company reserve to themselves, and a heavy penalty is attached to any individual who may bring them out, notwithstanding which, they are sometimes illicitly imported; but the price obtained has seldom left a profit, more particularly when they have been brought in foreign vessels, which they sometimes are to the extent of 6 or 7000 pieces; they have then fallen to 20 dollars per piece.

Clocks.—Some years ago immense quantities of clocks and other valuable pieces of mechanism, were annually imported into Canton; and when they pleased the fancy of the Hoppo, or officer who measured the ship on her arrival, sold at a great profit, and the Security Merchants were under the necessity of making him a present of them. This exaction became so great an evil, that representations were sent to Europe, requesting that no more such valuable commodities should be sent; in consequence of which, the Court of Directors have prohibited any Commander or Officer from carrying out any clock, or other piece of mechanism, the value of which shall exceed £100.

Watches.—The quantity which were formerly sent to China was very great, varying in price from 40s. a pair, to the most costly that were made. They must be in pairs, to suit the taste of the Chinese.

A few other articles are sometimes brought, viz cutlery, hardware, looking-glasses, coral, &c. but the demand is very limited, as the Chinese manufacture the inferior kinds nearly equal to the English.

The amount of the above enumerated goods it is difficult to ascertain; it is presumed not more than from 5 to £7000 in each ship. The remainder of the imports consists of Spanish dollars, and may probably be to a similar extent; which, allowing sixteen ships on an average in a season £14,000 each, makes an aggregate of imports of £224,000 per annum.

EXPORTS TO ENGLAND IN PRIVATE TRADE.

The Commanders and Officers are allowed to ship goods, under certain restrictions, in the tonnage allowed them by the Company, which is, according to their respective ranks, as follow:

Commander	Tons 38	Purser	Tons 3	Fifth Officer	Tons 1
Chief Officer	8	Surgeon	6	Boatswain	1
Second Officer	6	Surgeon's Mate	3	Gunner	1
Third Officer	3	Fourth Officer	2	Carpenter	1

Besides which, it is customary to allow the Commanders and Officers an additional quantity of 30 tons as extra indulgence, to be stowed in parts of the ship wherein the Company's cargo is not permitted to be stowed, and provided the Commander has not refused any part of the goods intended to be shipped on the Company's account.

Teas form the principal part of the private trade; the remainder consists of nankeens, China-ware, drugs of various kinds, &c. The following are the quantities of teas allowed to be imported on each ship from China, and on them a payment of 7 per cent. on the sale value of a small portion, and 17 per cent. on the remainder of the stipulated allowance.

	7 per Cent.	17 per Cent.	Total.		7 per Cent.	17 per Cent.	Total.
Commander	688 lbs.	8648 lbs.	9336 lbs.	Surgeon's Mate	54 lbs.	682 lbs.	736 lbs.
Chief Officer	90	1138	1228	Fourth Officer	36	456	492
Second Officer	72	912	984	Fifth Officer	18	228	246
Third Officer	54	682	736	Boatswain	18	228	246
Purser	54	682	736	Gunner	18	228	246
Surgeon	90	1138	1228	Carpenter	18	228	246

On every excess of the before-mentioned quantities of tea, a mulct of 20 per cent. on the sale value is charged, over and above the 17 per cent. duty. No mitigation of the mulct is ever made. The Company's charge on all goods imported from China in private trade, except tea, China-ware, and lackered ware, is 7 per cent. China-ware and lackered ware pay 9 per cent. The charges made on tea imported in private trade, are estimated to amount to near £6000 per annum.

The amount of private trade from China sold at the East India Company's sales in England, in the years 1793-4 to 1809-10 inclusive, was as follows:

1793-4	£258,981	1799-1800	£219,033	1805-6	£331,070
1794-5	209,715	1800-1	208,701	1806-7	267,507
1795-6	321,107	1801-2	312,081	1807-8	238,122
1796-7	220,594	1802-3	469,731	1808-9	476,621
1797-8	264,994	1803-4	366,208	1809-10	353,418
1798-9	300,236	1804-5	352,778		

forming a total in 17 years of £5,230,897, of which 4,216,773 consisted of teas; £309,730 of nankeens, £28,711 of China-ware, and the remainder £675,683 of various kinds of drugs, &c. Musk, camphire, and arrack are not permitted to be brought to England in ships from China.

The East India Company receive into their treasuries at Canton, and the different Presidencies in India, any part of the produce of the outward adventure of their Commanders and Officers, not exceeding £5000, for which certificates are granted them on the Court of Directors at the usual rates of exchange, to be divided in certain proportions, according to their rank, payable a moiety in 90 days, and a moiety in 365 days after sight.

The following statement of the different articles imported into, and exported from Canton in the year 1810-11, in the ships belonging to the East India Company, including those which have arrived from India, as well as those direct from England, is taken from the linguist's accounts:

IMPORTS.

Broad cloth	1,907 bales.	Sandal wood	4,691 peculs.
Long ells	10,254 ditto.	Sharks' fins	1,249 ditto.
Superfine ditto	173 ditto.	Fish maws	238 ditto.
Embossed ditto	12 ditto.	Wax	422 ditto.
Camblets	1,796 ditto.	Clocks	30 in No.
Worleys	119 ditto.	Long cloths	480 pieces.
Elephants' teeth	23 peculs.	Coarse cloths	900 ditto.
Cornelians	116,580 pieces.	Cutbear	98 peculs.
Beads	3 peculs.	Copper	352 ditto.
Lead	36,523 ditto.	Coral	8 ditto.
Tin	10,588 ditto.	Olibanum	1,354 ditto.
Cotton	107,039 ditto.	Beaver skins	2,220 ½ pieces.
Pepper	11,346 ditto.	Fox skins	2,270 ditto.
Beetle-nut	36,671 ditto.	Beech de mer	44 ditto.
Rattans	14,259 ditto.	Watches	228 in No.
Prussian blue	1,899 ditto.	Bird's nests	1½ peculs.
Rose maloes	215 ditto.	Sheet copper	36 ditto.
Window glass	316 ditto.	Iron	1,781 ditto.
Cuttings	70 ditto.	Flannel duroys	3,612 bales.
Rabbit skins	46,850 pieces.	White lead	438 peculs.
Putchock	6,911 peculs.	Red lead	69 ditto.

EXPORTS.

Black teas	160,165 peculs.	Tortoise-shell	35 peculs.
Green teas	43,558 ditto.	Rhubarb	88 ditto.
Nankeens	2,692 ditto.	Gamboge	41 ditto.
Raw silk	715 ditto.	Dragon's blood	3 ditto.
Sweetmeats	46 ditto.	Cassia	6 ditto.
China-ware	125 ditto.	Soft sugar	40 ditto.
Sugar-candy	121 ditto.	Nutmegs	27 ditto.
Mother o'pearl	1,224 ditto.	Silk thread	16 ditto.
Lackered ware	8 ditto.	Canton cloth	33 ditto.
Silk piece-goods	33 ditto.	Aniseeds	14 ditto.

The annual importation of goods from India into Canton, on account of the East India Company, cannot be ascertained. The articles which they occasionally import, are cotton and sandal-wood, both from the western side of India. The terms on which cotton is generally sent, are stated at Bombay. It appears from papers laid upon the table of the House of Commons, that the amount of monies received into the treasury at Canton from the settlements in India, on account of the Company, in the years 1792-3 to 1808-9 inclusive, was in cash £700,440; the produce of cotton, sandal-wood, &c. £1,000,166; and of freight, £107,470; forming a total during that period of £1,808,076, about £100,000 per annum.

COMMERCE WITH THE BRITISH SETTLEMENTS.

The following is a statement of the merchandise and treasure imported into Canton from the British settlements in India, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive; likewise of the merchandise and treasure exported from Canton to the British settlements during the same period, together with a list of the articles of which the imports and exports consisted in 1805.

IMPORTS INTO CANTON.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	106,84,864	70,093	107,54,957
1803	104,82,726	99,378	105,82,104
1804	166,13,575	10,497	166,24,072
1805	150,60,577	——	150,60,577
1806	128,94,989	61,503	129,56,492
Total.	657,36,731	2,41,471	659,78,302

EXPORTS FROM CANTON.

Years.	Merchandise.	Treasure.	Total.
	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.	Sicca Rupees.
1802	59,26,809	32,88,435	92,15,244
1803	29,02,592	17,52,566	46,55,158
1804	75,13,858	84,73,577	159,87,435
1805	44,94,674	81,81,845	126,76,519
1806	58,13,961	52,98,580	111,12,541
Total.	266,51,894	269,95,003	536,46,897

Articles of Import in 1805.

Cotton	Sicca Rupees 94,52,619
Opium	32,94,570
Piece-goods	4,70,561
Pearls	4,22,987
Saltpetre	2,87,144
Sandal wood	2,74,674
Sharks' fins	2,51,223
Grain	1,55,500
Canvas and gunnies	68,896
Myrrh	23,370
Red-wood	9,000
Olibanum	22,707
Cornelians	73,321
Elephants' teeth	26,743
Cutch	5,283
Putchock	54,313
Sundries	61,321
Imports re-exported, viz.	
Rice	29,400
Coral	63,495
Saltpetre	7,800
Wine and liquors	40,218
Glass-ware	9,049
Broad cloth	4,594
Iron and ironmongery	9,092
Sundries	13,102
Imports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 150,60,577

Articles of Export in 1805.

Piece-goods	Sicca Rupees 5,99,142
Sugar and sugar-candy	9,57,048
Tutenague	5,92,431
Camphire	3,61,703
Tea	3,01,398
Raw silk	2,07,743
Nankeens	2,00,295
China-ware	1,10,637
Alum	87,099
Beads	18,150
Brandy and other liquors	49,313
Pepper	65,839
Tin	34,434
Vermilion	1,12,724
Paper goods	11,758
Kittisols	11,865
Lackered ware	8,803
Spices	65,502
Cassia and cassia buds	72,670
Stationery	21,780
Nutmegs	45,256
Red and white lead	1,17,721
Furniture	36,606
Drugs	37,374
Cochineal	25,423
Cordage	16,100
Fireworks	13,670
Plate and plated ware	14,866
Sapan wood	26,244
Provisions	24,015
Sundries	1,46,337
Treasure	81,81,845
Exports in 1805	Sicca Rupees 126,76,519

From the foregoing statement it appears that the value of the merchandise imported into Canton from the British settlements, in the years 1802 to 1806 inclusive, was Sicca Rupees 657,36,371
Ditto exported from ditto to ditto 266,51,894

Imports exceed the exports 390,84,837
Treasure imported into Canton during the same period ..... Sicca Rupees 2,41,471
Ditto exported from ditto 269,95,003
267,53,532

Balance *against* Canton in five years ..... Sicca Rupees 658,38,369

which, at 2s. 6d. sterling per rupee, is £8,229,796 2s. 6d., on an average £1,645,959 4s. 6d. per annum, being in favour of the British settlements, in the following proportions:

Bengal ..... Sicca Rupees 308,76,490, or £3,859,561 5s. 0d.
Fort St. George and its dependencies ..... 29,84,458 ..... 373,057 5s. 0d.
Bombay and Surat ..... 319,77,421 ..... 3,997,177 12s. 6d.

The principal articles of import from the British settlements are cotton and opium. The cotton required for the Canton market was, previous to 1802, entirely in the hands of the Bombay merchants: in that year about 8000 bales were sent from Bengal, and obtained a preference over that of Bombay, being superior both in quality and cleanliness. In the year 1804 the quantity was increased to upwards of 46,000 bales; it has since experienced some diminution, but this interference threatens ultimately to affect the trade of Bombay with China in a very material degree.

Cotton in general will turn out a surplus at China, from various causes. In India you generally get a pound in each draft, besides the turn of the scale; the bales accumulate dust and dirt before sent on board, the quantity of grease used in stowing them, and the cotton itself imbibing moisture on the voyage; as it has been found, where ships were a little leaky, without doing any material damage, they have delivered the greatest surplus. At China it is customary to deliver to a standing beam, or as near as possible: a bottle of wine and a few sweetmeats given to the Mandarins on board, are of material service; it makes them civil, and you can get them to do many things: in trivial matters it is better to yield rather than dispute; but in matters of consequence, be stedfast, and you will carry your point.

Cotton is sent to Canton in boats called chops, that carry 55 drafts or bales; and all weighable articles are by the same number of drafts, whether of 4 or 7 cwt.; consequently in tin, iron, or lead, the heavier you can make your drafts, the less number of chops will be necessary; and as that charge is paid by the seller, you will save expence, and in many days save time also. The musters of cotton should be drawn in India by a handful from each bale, packed into two or three small bales; and sent on board to be kept at hand, and marked "Musters;" and when the cargo is sold, they should be produced as a muster of the whole, whereby no dispute can arise on account of the quality; for should there be an inferior cotton on board, the Chinese will take an advantage of it, and make a deduction from the price agreed upon.

All damaged bales should be weighed in the state they are in, and a deduction made for the supposed damaged cotton, by which means you are certain of having the weight of all the good cotton; whereas if you cut out the damaged, you must certainly lose some of the good with it, and the people who are sent by the Chinese merchants to weigh the cotton, are not judges of the quantity of water the bale may contain; although they think there may be 30 lbs. damaged, it often happens there are 50 lbs. of water in the bale.

The following is a statement of the different articles imported into Canton from the British settlements in country ships, in the year 1810–11, likewise of the different articles exported from Canton to the British settlements, taken from the linguist's accounts:

IMPORTS.

Cotton	103,527 peculs.	Pepper	3,917 peculs.
Sandal-wood	3,944 ditto.	Rattans	116 ditto.
Sharks' fins	2,099 ditto.	Snuff	10 ditto.
Fish maws	933 ditto.	Wax	311 ditto.
Elephants' teeth	372 ditto.	Birds' nests	17 ditto.
Olibanum	106 ditto.	Beech de mer	45 ditto.
Cornelians	426,810 pieces.	Coral	3 ditto.
Beads	8 peculs.	Rice	476 ditto.
Tin	3,225 ditto.	Fox skins	34 pieces.
Cow bezoar	3 ditto.	Seal skins	80 ditto.
Putchock	2,127 ditto.	Otter skins	106 ditto.
Camphire	4 ditto.	Rattan mats	920 ditto.
Beetle-nut	1,047 ditto.	Pearl shells	1,686 peculs.
Black-wood	15 ditto.	Spanish dollars	11,500 in No.

EXPORTS.

Soft sugar	17,327 peculs.	Vermilion	9 peculs.
Sugar-candy	14,499 ditto.	Raw silk	548 ditto.
Rhubarb	38 ditto.	Silk piece-goods	255 ditto.
Tutenague	6,898 ditto.	Copper leaf	258 ditto.
Cassia	3,019 ditto.	Nankeen cloth	1,144 ditto.
China-ware	5,217 ditto.	Sweetmeats	786 ditto.
Camphire	1,686 ditto.	Hats	3,663 pieces.
Alum	8,789 ditto.	Hams	139 peculs.
Glass beads	2,134 ditto.	Nutmegs	8 ditto.
Green tea	4,419 ditto.	Lackered ware	166 ditto.
Black tea	1,206 ditto.	Grass cloth	10 ditto.
Writing paper	55 ditto.	Looking glasses	883 ditto.

COMMERCE WITH FOREIGN EUROPE.

The principal article for which the different European nations frequent Canton, is tea. The quantities they have annually exported, are stated under the heads of the respective East India Companies. They have generally purchased it by bullion, which is the most lucrative and beneficial mode of carrying on the trade. Since passing the Commutation Act, which took place in Great Britain in 1784, the trade has much declined, and the disturbed state of Europe for many years past has put an entire stop to it. The small quantity of teas required for the consumption of the Continent, has in consequence thereof been regularly supplied by American ships from Canton to Amsterdam, Copenhagen, Hamburgh, &c.

COMMERCE WITH AMERICA.

The Americans, immediately their independence was acknowledged by Great Britain, began to fit out vessels to India and China. Their imports into Canton at first consisted chiefly of dollars, furs, and ginseng; but of late years they have brought large quantities of camblets, which have seldom produced them any profit. Their exports have consisted of teas, nankeens, China-ware, wrought silks, and the various other articles hereafter enumerated. There is an American factory at Canton, but no settled establishment. The ships are each under separate management, and are generally small, seldom exceeding 250 tons burthen.

The following is an account of the quantities of goods imported into, and exported from Canton in American vessels, in the year 1810–11, taken from the linguist's accounts:

IMPORTS.

Cotton	1,905 peculs.	Tar	70 peculs.
Ginseng	1,165 ditto.	Copper	1,412 ditto.
Cochineal	6 ditto.	Otters' tails	6,607 pieces.
Fox skins	6,727 pieces.	Wine	227 peculs.
Beaver skins	9,802 ditto.	Beech de mer	104 ditto.
Otter skins	12,349 ditto.	Seal skins	7,964 pieces.
Blackwood	204 peculs.	Rice	5,674 peculs.
Steel	816 ditto.	Sago	37 ditto.
Vinegar	126 ditto.	Beetle-nut	3,439 ditto.
Sea-otter skins	10,533 pieces.	Wax	8 ditto.
Lead	31 pieces.	Oil	13 ditto.
Sandal wood	496 ditto.	Spanish dollars	2,679,126 in No.

The average imports for four years were in bullion about £500,000, and goods £100,000.

EXPORTS.

Green teas	17,279 peculs.	Raw silk, Canton	266 peculs.
Black teas	4,354 ditto.	Sweetmeats	4 ditto.
China-ware	4,983 ditto.	Raw silk, Nankeen	100 ditto.
Nankeens	6,391 ditto.	Gamboge	26 ditto.
Cassia	1,504 ditto.	Empty bags	200 ditto.
Nutmegs	24 ditto.	Coloured paper	10 ditto.
Vermilion	47 ditto.	Canton cloth	38 ditto.
Sewing silk	110 ditto.	Camphire	34 ditto.
Silk piece-goods	1,159 pieces.	Silk thread	30 ditto.
Galangal	10 peculs.	Tortoise-shell	25 ditto.
Sugar-candy	3 ditto.	Alum	492 ditto.
Lackered ware	5 ditto.	White lead	105 ditto.
Cloves	1 ditto.	Soft sugar	4 ditto.
Rhubarb	7 ditto.	Floor mats	47 ditto.

From the state of European warfare, the Americans, being a neutral nation, have derived great advantages; they have had access to countries from whence the English were shut out, where they disposed of considerable quantities of the commodities of India and China: but the war between Great Britain and America has put a stop to this; otherwise, on the return of peace, all these advantages would have ceased, as America cannot maintain a successful competition against the Company, either in India or China.

The following is an account of the number of ships which have laden at Canton for England and the East Indies, with the quantities of teas exported on them in the years 1767–8 to 1810–11 inclusive; also the number of foreign and American ships laden at Canton, with the quantities of teas exported on them during the same period. The quantities shipped for the various foreign European nations are stated under the heads of the respective Companies.

Years.	ENGLAND.		FOREIGN EUROPE.		AMERICA.		EUROPE & AMERICA.		TOTAL.	
	Ships	lbs. of Tea.	Ships	lbs. of Tea.	Ships	lbs. of Tea.	Ships	lbs. of Tea.	Ships	lbs. of Tea.
1767–8	8	4,580,867	11	12,767,605	—	——	11	12,767,605	19	17,348,472
1768–9	12	7,249,208	10	12,167,788	—	——	10	12,167,788	22	19,416,996
1769–70	17	11,294,117	9	10,592,671	—	——	9	10,592,671	26	21,886,788
1770–1	13	9,198,059	10	12,891,710	—	——	10	12,891,710	23	22,089,769
1771–2	20	13,118,293	—	no account.	—	——	—	no account	20	13,118,293
1772–3	13	8,869,099	11	13,652,800	—	——	11	13,652,800	24	22,521,899
1773–4	8	3,885,651	12	13,838,200	—	——	12	13,838,200	20	17,723,851
1774–5	4	2,159,881	15	15,652,800	—	——	15	13,652,800	19	17,812,867
1775–6	5	3,402,415	12	12,841,500	—	——	12	12,841,500	17	16,243,915
1776–7	8	5,673,434	13	16,112,000	—	——	13	16,112,000	21	21,785,434
1777–8	9	6,392,788	15	13,302,700	—	——	15	13,302,700	24	19,695,488
1778–9	7	4,372,021	11	11,302,300	—	——	11	11,302,300	18	15,674,321
1779–80	7	4,746,206	10	12,673,700	—	——	10	12,673,700	17	17,419,906
1780–1	10	6,846,603	10	11,725,600	—	——	10	11,725,600	20	18,572,203
1781–2	9	6,857,731	5	7,385,800	—	——	5	7,385,800	14	14,243,531
1782–3	6	4,138,295	16	14,630,200	—	——	16	14,630,200	22	18,768,495
1783–4	13	9,916,760	21	19,072,300	—	——	21	19,072,300	34	28,989,060
1784–5	14	10,583,628	16	16,551,000	2	880,100	18	17,531,100	32	28,114,728
1785–6	18	13,480,691	12	15,715,900	1	695,000	13	16,410,900	31	29,891,591
1786–7	27	20,610,919	9	10,165,160	5	1,181,860	14	11,347,020	41	31,957,939
1787–8	29	22,096,703	13	13,578,000	2	750,500	15	14,328,900	44	36,425,603
1788–9	27	20,141,745	11	9,875,900	4	1,188,800	15	11,064,700	42	31,206,445
1789–90	21	17,991,032	7	7,174,200	14	3,093,200	21	10,267,400	42	28,258,432
1790–1	25	22,369,620	7	2,291,560	3	743,100	10	3,034,660	35	25,404,280
1791–2	11	13,185,467	9	4,431,730	3	1,863,200	12	6,294,930	23	19,480,397
1792–3	16	16,005,414	13	7,864,800	6	1,538,400	19	9,403,200	35	25,408,614
1793–4	18	20,728,705	5	3,462,800	7	1,974,130	12	5,436,930	30	26,165,635
1794–5	21	23,733,810	7	4,138,930	7	1,438,270	14	5,577,200	35	29,311,010
1795–6	15	19,370,900	4	2,759,800	10	2,819,600	14	5,579,400	29	24,950,300
1796–7	23	36,904,200	3	2,515,460	13	3,450,400	16	5,965,860	39	42,870,060
1797–8	17	29,934,100	5	2,714,000	10	3,100,400	15	5,814,400	32	35,748,500
1798–9	16	16,795,400	6	4,319,300	13	5,674,000	19	9,993,300	35	26,788,700
1799–0	14	26,385,337	4	1,577,066	18	5,665,067	22	7,242,133	36	33,827,470
1800–1	19	29,772,400	7	3,968,267	23	4,762,866	30	8,731,133	49	38,503,533
1801–2	25	38,479,733	1	185,533	31	5,740,734	32	5,926,267	57	44,406,000
1802–3	38	35,058,400	12	5,812,266	20	2,612,436	32	8,424,702	70	43,483,102
1803–4	44	31,801,333	2	2,132,666	13	2,371,600	15	4,504,266	59	36,305,599
1804–5	38	28,306,667	3	3,318,799	31	8,516,800	34	11,865,599	72	40,372,266
1805–6	49	22,810,533	4	1,809,466	37	11,702,800	41	13,512,266	90	36,322,799
1806–7	58	32,083,066	2	1,534,267	27	8,464,133	29	9,998,400	87	42,681,466
1807–8	51	25,347,733	2	1,144,266	31	6,408,266	33	7,552,532	84	32,900,265
1808–9	54	26,335,446	—	none.	6	1,082,400	6	1,082,400	60	27,417,846
1809–10	40	26,301,066	—	none.	29	9,737,066	29	9,737,066	69	36,038,132
1810–11	34	27,163,066	—	none.	12	2,884,400	12	2,884,400	46	30,047,466

In the foregoing account the teas exported for the use of the British settlements, about 4000 chests per annum, are included. Of the quantities exported in ships under American colours, a great portion has been landed in various parts of Foreign Europe, more particularly in the years 1804–5 to 1809–10.

COMMERCE WITH COCHIN-CHINA, SIAM, &c.

IMPORTS.—The following is a statement of the cargoes of 32 junks imported into Canton in one year, *viz.* 9 from Cochin-China, 7 from Cancao, or Kangeow; 9 from Pachuck, 4 from Palembang, 2 from Cambodia, and 1 from Batavia, which will shew the nature of the trade carried on by the Chinese in their own vessels with the neighbouring countries.

Agala-wood	69 peculs.
Agal agal, a sea-weed	428 ditto.
Amboyna wood	32 ditto.
Arrack	3,550 bottles.
Bark used for dying	79 peculs.
Beetle-nut	31,402 ditto.
Beech de mer	2,684 ditto.
Benjamin	12 ditto.
Birds' nests	31 ditto.
Black-wood	6,079 ditto.
Blue, or smalts	223 ditto.
Bullocks' bones	502 ditto.
Calavances	317 ditto.
Camphire baroos	1 ditto.
Canes	109 ditto.
Cardamums	568 ditto.
Cassia	41 ditto.
Cakes for washing	451 ditto.
Cloves	4 ditto.
Cochineal	6 ditto.
Cotton	1,262 ditto.
Coffee	110 ditto.
Deer sinews	66 ditto.
Dried sea snails	666 ditto.
Ditto shrimps	408 ditto.
Ditto fish	2,301 ditto.
Ditto deers' flesh	412 ditto.
Ditto cows' ditto	288 ditto.
Dragons' blood	13 ditto.
Drugs, medicinal	1,694 ditto.
Elephants' teeth	51 ditto.
Ditto bones	11 ditto.
Fish glue	47 ditto.
Gamboge	59 ditto.
Linen cloth	15 peculs.
Looking-glasses	26 in No.
Long pepper	8 peculs.
Madras cloths	79 pieces.
Mats, rattan and straw	7,412 in No.
Mother o'pearl shells	417 peculs.
Nutmegs	56 ditto.
Olibanum	44 ditto.
Paunch and pelongs	116 pieces.
Pepper	3,368 peculs.
Pine-leaf cloth	24,308 pieces.
Putchock	7 peculs.
Rattans	1,702 ditto.
Rose-wood, 1st sort	276 ditto.
Ditto 2d ditto	3,804 ditto.
Sago	12 ditto.
Sandal-wood	204 ditto.
Sapan-wood	7,030 ditto.
Seeds, small, used in cakes	20 ditto.
Sharks' fins	14 ditto.
Skins of deer, elephants, &c.	489 ditto.
Stick-lac	10 ditto.
Sugar, powder	1,488 ditto.
Sugar-candy	11,126 ditto.
Sweetmeats	32 ditto.
Tin	12,658 ditto.
Tin utensils	7 ditto.
Tinder, of a sort of moss	18 ditto.
Tortoise-shell	8 ditto.
Wax	129 ditto.
Wax-candles	10 ditto.
Wine, 1680 bottles	31 ditto.

Exclusive of a number of articles in smaller quantities than the above, which are not regularly registered.

EXPORTS.—The following is a statement of the cargoes of 24 junks exported from Canton in one year, *viz.* 10 to Cochin-China, 3 to Cancao, 1 to Cambodia, 9 to Pachuck, and 1 to Batavia.

Alum	342 peculs.	Lackered ware	34 peculs.
Arrack and European wine	212 bottles.	Lamp-wicks	1 ditto.
Biscuits	27 peculs.	Lapis calaminaris	8 ditto.
Blubber, dried	5 ditto.	Linen cloths of sorts	15,400 pieces.
Borax	13 ditto.	Looking-glasses	147 in No.
Branch coral	1 ditto.	Musk	1 pecul.
Brimstone	3 ditto.	Myrrh	4 ditto.
Camphire, China	2 ditto.	Nankeen cloth	25,311 pieces.
Carpets, embossed	2 in No.	Needles	1 pecul.
Cassia	1 pecul.	Nutmegs	1 ditto.
Chairs, tables, stools, &c.	42 ditto.	Olibanum	5 ditto.
China-ware of sorts	2,339 ditto.	Ornamental figures	11 ditto.
China root	304 ditto.	Pearl, false, and stone ornaments	778 ditto.
Chocolate	1 ditto.	Paper of sorts	1,180 ditto.
Cinnabar	4 ditto.	Ditto foil to burn to idols	1,028 ditto.
Cinnamon	4 ditto.	Ditto kites	10 ditto.
Clothes, old	2 ditto.	Putchock	2 ditto.
Cloth cuttings	1 ditto.	Quicksilver	3 ditto.
Cloves	2 ditto.	Raw silk, Nankeen	6 ditto.
Coffee	15 ditto.	Saffron, China	42 ditto
Congou tea	4,197 ditto.	Salt fish	5 ditto.
Cutch	1 ditto.	Sandal-wood	2 ditto
Dammer	18 ditto.	Ditto sticks, mixed, to burn	644 ditto.
Dried fruits	353 ditto.	Stockings	5,779 pairs.
Drugs, medicinal	1,556 ditto.	Sugar-candy and preserves	32 peculs.
Earth, red	10 ditto.	Talc	13 ditto.
Fishing lines made of grass	1 ditto.	Thread, sewing	1 ditto.
Flints	2 ditto.	Tin manufactured	5 ditto.
Garlic	15 ditto.	Tobacco, China	1 ditto.
Gauze lanthorns	156 in No.	Tortoise-shell	1 ditto.
Ginseng, Canada	2 peculs.	Tutenague	18,950 ditto.
Glue	3 ditto.	Verdigrease	1 ditto.
Gold thread, China	2 ditto.	Vermilion	3 ditto.
Ink	28 ditto.	Wood, coarse	36 ditto.
Isinglass	24 ditto.	Woollen cloths	1,882 covids.
Kittisols	420 in No.	Wax	12 peculs.

Exclusive of a number of articles in smaller quantities than the above, which are not regularly registered.

The coasting trade of China, and the number of vessels passing to and fro in the neighbourhood of Canton is immense; but to the northward the latter are stated to be more numerous, and their cargoes more valuable.

COMMERCE WITH THE EASTERN ISLANDS.

Under the heads of imports and exports at the different islands and places to the eastward, are enumerated the various articles of which the cargoes of the junks to and from China are composed; but the quantities of each respective commodity it is not possible to ascertain. Gold forms the most material article of import; it is estimated that, one year with another, 100 peculs are annually brought to China, which cost on an average 22 Spanish dollars per buncal, of 2 Spanish dollars weight; 100 peculs, each 133⅓ lbs. is 213,328 oz. which, at £4 per avoirdupois ounce, is £853,312 sterling.

COMMERCE WITH JAPAN.

The following is a list of the exports from Canton to Japan in one year previous to the restrictions, which have been laid upon the trade by the Japanese Government, who are equally strict with the Chinese as with the Dutch:

Wrought silk	457 peculs.	Nanarack	35 peculs.
Tonquin silk	4 ditto.	Wash	91 ditto.
Sewing silk	29 ditto.	China-root	22 ditto.
Pelongs	10,385 pieces.	Sittaw	5 ditto.
Geelems	10,840 ditto.	China dye	3 ditto.
Pancies	30,955 ditto.	Tea	5 ditto.
Scowells	5,039 ditto.	Borax	1 ditto.
Satins	2,394 ditto.	Bark of trees	10 ditto.
Velvets	347 ditto.	Dye stuff	1 ditto.
Embredors	57 ditto.	Gold thread	2 ditto.
Damasks	256 ditto.	Ditto	230 bdls.
Gaysons	246 ditto.	Calambac	1 pecul.
Striped silk stuffs	213 ditto.	Drugs, various	752 ditto.
Cushion cloths	887 ditto.	Spectacles	2,700 in No.
Cloths of cloth	35 ditto.	Tea-pots	84 peculs.
Salempores	60 ditto.	Books	2 chests.
Cotton cloth	1,869 ditto.	China paper	670 bdls.
Hempen cloths	16,502 ditto.	Hart skins	74,260 in No.
Camblets	1,265 ditto.	Fish skins	905 ditto.
Thread sestentines	40 ditto.	Jammaamies	3,375 ditto.
Chinese serge	4 ditto.	Cobbettoes	3,173 ditto.
Senangees	24 ditto.	Cow hides	70 peculs.
Fabellaes	4 ditto.	Buck skins	150 ditto.
Cotton wool	45 peculs.	China-ware	20 chests.
Black cloth	15 ells.	Chunam	150 peculs.
Watton	8 catties.	Hare skins	5 ditto.
White sugar	7,911 peculs.	Pepper	54 ditto.
Brown ditto	1,600 ditto.	Buffalo horns	11 ditto.
Stick ditto	420 ditto.	Elephants' teeth	11 ditto.
Sapan-wood	180 ditto.	Cassia Lignea	4 ditto.
Spelter	366 ditto.	Small wares	192 chests.

COMMERCE WITH RUSSIA.

A considerable inland trade has been long carried on between Russia and China, at marts fixed on the boundaries of the two countries; but no attempt had ever been made to open a communication by sea till 1806, when two Russian ships, which had been fitted out for discovery, arrived at Macao, and procured a cargo of goods. The jealousy with which the Chinese viewed these strangers, will appear by the following extract from an Imperial Edict relative to their visiting Macao, and will shew that the attempt of that nation to open a trade with Canton, has not met with much encouragement.

"We are just apprized by the Hoppo that two Russian ships had successively anchored in the roads of Macao, and that on board of these ships, two foreign merchants, Krusenstern and Lysianskoy, had arrived, and had brought with them a sum of money and a cargo of furs, with the intent of opening a trade at the port of Canton; that the Hong merchants had, upon an investigation, found these Russians to belong to the nation termed by the Chinese, Go-lo-se, and had translated and laid before him their petition for leave to trade; upon which he, the said Hoppo, having consulted with the Viceroy and the Sub-Viceroy, had issued the usual orders, directing the merchants to trade honestly and fairly with them.

"This is a very negligent and summary mode of proceeding; for it ought to have been recollected that the trade with foreign nations is restricted within certain limits, which it is never permitted to violate or transgress. It is true that all such foreign nations as are accustomed to frequent the ports of Canton, Macao, and the neighbouring islands, are likewise allowed the liberty of trading in those parts; but amongst these the name of the Russian nation has never yet been observed by us: wherefore their sudden appearance at this time, and design of opening a trade at the port of Canton, cannot be considered otherwise than as a very novel and extraordinary circumstance."

After declaring the conduct of the officers of Government at Canton to be very culpable, the edict states—

"The Viceroy and Hoppo shall, immediately on the receipt of these commands, in the first instance suspend for a time all transactions at the Custom-house on behalf of the said ships, provided they are not already laden; if they shall have completed their lading, but not have quitted the port, the Viceroy and Hoppo shall proceed, without delay, accurately to enquire and investigate whether these Russians really came from the nation Go-lo-se; and if so, how the natives of the Go-lo-se nation, who have hitherto always traded by way of Kiachta, in Tartary, and never before visited the coast of Quan-tong, have now been able to navigate their ships thither, and have become acquainted with the shoals and islands with which that coast abounds. Also, whether they have not passed by some other kingdoms in their way from Russia, and what kingdoms; whether they were not from some, and from what kingdoms, directed and informed how to proceed to this country.

"Lastly, they are to enquire whether the Russian merchants embarked in these ships, brought their cargoes with them for their own private emolument and advantage, or were dispatched to China to trade, by the orders of the King. The Viceroy and Hoppo, having taken measures for collecting full and distinct information on all these subjects, shall transmit the same to us by express. In reply we shall give to them our final instructions for their guidance.

"But should these ships, having taken in and completed their cargoes, have been permitted to depart, and no channel remain, through which this subject may be investigated, we, in that case, do direct that, in the event of any ships visiting for the future the ports of Canton and Macao, or their vicinity, belonging to any other nation besides those which have customarily frequented those ports, they shall on no account whatever be permitted to trade, but merely suffered to remain in port until the Viceroy and Hoppo, having reported to us every circumstance respecting them, shall have been apprized, in return, of our determination.

"We dispatch this edict by express, that the Viceroy may know our pleasure, and conform to it."

PRICE CURRENT OF GOODS, OCTOBER 1, 1810.

Aluva	4 dollars per pecul.
Amber, fine large pieces	16 tales per catty.
Ditto, false, if fine	20 ditto per pecul.
Arrack, Batavia	30 dollars per leager
Assafœtida	6 ditto per pecul.
Beetle-nut, Malay	6 ditto, ditto.
Beech de Mer, 1st sort	20 tales ditto.
Ditto 2d sort	14 ditto, ditto.
Benjamin 1st sort	22 ditto, ditto.
Bird's nest 1st sort	40 dollars per catty.
Ditto 2d sort	15 ditto.
Bezoar, if fine	30 ditto.
Cotton: Bombay	13½ tales per pecul.
Cotton: Bengal	14½ ditto.
Cotton: Madras	15 ditto.
Cochineal, English	1300 dollars per ditto.
Ditto Manilla	1200 ditto.
Cloves, new	110 ditto.
Camphire: Malay, 1st sort	30 dollars per catty.
Camphire: Ditto 2d sort	15 ditto.
Camphire: China	42 ditto per pecul.
Coral, coarse	20 ditto per catty.
Cassia, 1st sort	20 ditto per pecul.
Cassia buds	20 ditto.
Coculus Indicus	4 ditto.
China root	3½ ditto.
Cutch, Pegu	5 tales per ditto.
Ditto, white	4 ditto.
Copper, Japan	24 ditto.
Canton-cloth: 1st sort	7 dollars per piece.
Canton-cloth: 2d sort	6 ditto.
Canton-cloth: 3d sort	5 ditto.
Deers' horns	60 ditto per pecul.
Dragon's blood	45 tales ditto.
Dammer	3 ditto.
Elephants' Teeth: 1st sort, 3 to a pecul	80 dollars per ditto.
Elephants' Teeth: 2d sort, 4 ditto	72 ditto.
Elephants' Teeth: 3d sort, 5 ditto	65 ditto.
Gold, 100 touch	23 ditto per tale.
Ditto, 98 ditto	22½ ditto.
Galangal	5 tales per pecul.
Gamboge	85 ditto.
Gauze: Flowered	5 dollars per piece.
Gauze: Plain	4½ ditto.
Gauze: Catgut	1½ ditto.
Hartall	12 ditto per pecul.
Handkerchiefs, black silk	8 ditto per piece.
Lead, white	12 ditto per pecul.
Lutestrings, plain, 1st sort	12 ditto per piece.
Ditto striped	13 ditto.
Myrrh, best	35 tales per pecul.
Musc, new, 1st sort	100 dollars per ditto.
Musk, ditto	52 ditto per catty.
Nankeens: Company's 1st sort	100 dol. per 100 ps.
Nankeens: Ditto 2d sort	84 ditto.
Nankeens: Narrow 1st sort	47 ditto.
Nankeens: Ditto 2d sort	45 ditto.
Nutmegs, new, 1st sort	200 ditto per pecul
Opium: Patna	1000 ditto per chest.
Opium: Benares	950 ditto.
Olibanum	5 ditto per pecul.
Pearls	according to size and quality.
Pearl shells	7 dol. per pecul.
Pepper	8 ditto.
Putchock	22 tales per pecul.
Pelongs, double	5 ditto per piece.
Ditto, single	2½ ditto.
Quicksilver	95 ditto per pecul.
Rattans, Malacca	4½ ditto.
Rhubarb	16 ditto.
Rose Maloes	40 ditto.
Ribbons, silk, of colours	8 dol. per catty.
Ditto, black	7 ditto.
Sago	2 tales per pecul.
Sapan-wood	4½ dol. per ditto.
Sharks' fins	30 ditto.
Sandal-wood: Malabar, 1st sort	19 tales per pecul.
Sandal-wood: Ditto 2d sort	16 ditto.
Sandal-wood: Ditto 3d sort	13 ditto.
Sandal-wood: Timor	13 ditto.
Silver, Sycee	discount 2 per cent.
Sugar-candy: Chinchew	11 tales per pecul.
Sugar-candy: Canton, 1st sort	10 ditto.
Sugar-candy: Ditto 2d sort	9 ditto.
Sugar: 1st sort	6½ ditto.
Sugar: 2d ditto	6 ditto.
Sugar: 3d ditto	5 ditto.
Sugar: Canton, 1st sort	260 ditto.
Sugar: Ditto 2d sort	250 ditto.
Silk, Raw: Ditto 3d sort	240 ditto.
Silk, Raw: Coarse Char	170 ditto.
Silk, Raw: Nankeen, 1st sort	330 dol. per pecul.
Satins: Plain	17 dol. per piece.
Satins: Flowered	17 ditto.
Satins: Damask	23 ditto.
Teas: Hyson	56 tales per pecul.
Teas: Hyson-skin	26 ditto.
Teas: Singlo	25 ditto.
Teas: Bohea	15 ditto.
Teas: Congou	28 ditto.
Teas: Souchong	40 ditto.
Tortoise-shell	300 dol. per pecul.
Tin	18 ditto.
Tutenague	15 tales per ditto.
Turmeric	5 ditto.
Vermillion	55 ditto per chest.

PORT-CHARGES.

Soon after a ship's arrival, the principal Mandarin sends word to the Security Merchant, appointing a day for the purpose of measuring the ship, which is put off till there are six or more ships waiting. (for the Mandarin will not go down in the early part of the season to measure a less number than six.) The Hong merchant fixes, through the Linguist, the day when it is expected all work shall be suspended, and the ship cleaned and dressed. The Hong merchant, by means of the Comprador, sends tea, sweetmeats, &c. on board, for the Hoppo's entertainment. The boat in which he comes, is distinguished by a yellow flag, which is the Imperial colours; and as soon as he is in sight, a boat with an officer is sent off from each ship that is to be measured, to attend him.

A ship is not properly imported until she is measured, which measurement is taken from the centre of the mizen-mast to the centre of the foremast for the length, and close abaft the mainmast from side to side for the breadth; the length is multiplied by the breadth, and the product, divided by 10, gives the ship's measurage.

The Emperor's books have all ships imported, entered into them under the following denominations, in proportion to which they pay a duty of measurage, *viz.*

	M	C	C
1st rates....74 cubits long, and 23 broad, though ever so much larger, pay ..Tales	7	7	7
2d ditto ....71 to 74 ditto.....22 to 23 broad	7	1	4
3d ditto ....65 to 71 ditto.....20 to 22 ditto	5	0	0

Ships, however small, pay as third rates, which is a heavy charge upon small vessels frequenting the port.

Example.—Suppose a ship measures 79 cubits 9 punts in length, and 25 cubits 5 punts in breadth; these multiplied together, produce 178 cubits 3 punts, 65 dec. which, at the rate of 7 tales, 7 mace, 7 candareens, 7 cash per cubit, are.....Tales 1,387 2 8 3

Deduct the Emperor's allowance of 20 per cent.			277 4 5 6
The Emperor's net duty.....Tales	1,109	8	2 7
Add 7 per cent. to make it sycee			77 6 8 8
	1,187	5	1 5
To the Hoppo, or receiver of customs, 10 per cent. thereon			118 7 5 2
	1,306	2	6 7
To the Collectors, &c. 2 per cent. to be paid in current silver			22 1 9 6
	1,328	4	6 3
Impositions at sundry times since the year 1704, under the denomination of presents to the great Mandarins, and which are now claimed to be as much their due as the ship's measurage	1,950	0	0 0
Tales	3,278	4	6 3

All European ships do not pay a like sum under the denomination of presents.

Ships, belonging to the English, pay..	1,950 tales.	Ships belonging to the Dutch, pay	1,950 tales.
Ditto, French	2,050 ditto.	Ditto, Swedish	1,950 ditto.
Ditto, Moors.....	1,850 ditto.	Ditto, Danish.....	1,950 ditto.

The Hoppo, at the measurement, always obtains from the Security Merchants many of the valuable articles imported, as presents, or he pays but a trifling part of the value for them.

The distribution of the 1,950 tales, charged as presents, is said to be thus divided:

	M	C	C
To the Emperor, on the ship's arrival.....Tales	1,089	6	4 0
To ditto on her departure	516	5	6 1
To the Leantow for the poor	132	0	0 0
To the Security Merchant's Dispatchador	12	0	0 0
To the Writers, on the measuring the ship, for boats	8	4	0 0
To the soldiers that attend the measuring of the ship, for boat-hire, &c.	5	5	6 0
To the Hoppo's soldiers on the arrival of the ship	16	7	8 0
To the Foyen on the notice of the ship's arrival	2	8	0 0
To the Quongchefou, ditto	2	8	0 0
To the Fonnew-hyen at Whampoa, ditto	1	7	0 0
To the Namho-hyen, ditto	1	2	0 0
To the Quonan-fou at Macao, ditto	1	2	0 0
To two officers belonging to the Hoppo, for their attendance on the ship during her stay in the river	150	0	0 0
To the difference of the Emperor's weights, &c.	9	3	5 9
Total of the presents.....Tales	1950	0	0 0

The charge of unloading a ship at Whampoa per day, is as follows:

	M	C	C
The Hoppo.....Tales	2	0	0 0
The Secretary	0	7	2 0
The Writer	0	7	2 0
The Linguist	0	7	2 0
The Whampoa officer's eating	0	3	0 0
Ditto, beetle-nut, &c.	0	3	0 0
The weigher	1	1	1 0
For a boat	1	4	4 0
The Hoppo's man to protect the goods	0	2	0 0
To the three Hoppo-houses	0	7	2 0
The Hoppo's officer's eating comes to about	3	0	0 0
Forming a total of.....Tales	11	2	3 0

The Linguist is obliged to make the following presents for each ship, previous to her departure:

To the first Hoppo-house	10 tales.
To the second ditto	5 ditto.
To the third ditto	10 ditto.

making in the whole 25 tales. The fees at going away, which were only 4 or 5 dollars formerly, and which charge was and is paid by the Company, are now increased to upwards of 40 dollars per ship. What the Merchants pay besides, cannot be known, but it is reckoned to be considerable.

IMPORT AND EXPORT DUTIES.

The duties on all goods imported and exported are paid by the Chinese; it is therefore very difficult to ascertain the real duties of any commodity, as they are frequently altered by the Mandarins. The following is an account of the Emperor's customs on Bohea tea, and of sundry charges at Canton in 1756:

Gross weight, 1 pecul 11 catties; deduct for package 10 per cent. 11 catties; leaves net 1 pecul.

		M	C	C
Emperor's duty per pecul	Tales	0	2	0 0
14 per cent. on the 2 mace for charges of sending the money to Pekin, and for Secretaries and Accountants		0	0	2 8
8 per cent. on 2 mace, 2 candareens, 2 cash, to make it sycee		0	0	1 8
5 mace 4 candareens per cent. (part of the 6 per cent. duty) on the valuation, being 8 tales per pecul		0	4	3 2
A duty of 1 mace per pecul, called peculage duty		0	1	0 0
The Linguist's charge for victualling the Hoppo's people at shipping off, and for boat-hire to the ship		0	0	3 0
	Tales	0	8	0 8

The Secretaries and Accountants had formerly a share in the 14 per cent. on the 2 mace. The Emperor now keeps the whole, and pays them wages; but out of it he pays the charge of sending the duties from Canton to his Court.

The charge of 8 per cent. on 2 2 8 per pecul, to make that sum sycee, differs, and is sometimes less.

The 5 mace 4 cand. duty, part of 6 per cent. duty on the valuation of 8 tales per pecul, is paid in dollar money.

The 6 candareens, or 6 per cent. duty on the valuation of 8 tales per pecul, is paid in dollars; but it is properly a duty of 5 candareens 4 cash; the other 6 cash are for the Hoagist who ships off, to defray the charge of his Hong.

Of the 5 candareens 4 cash duty, the Emperor has only 4 candareens 8 cash. An hospital for poor persons, who have no children to maintain them, has the remaining 6 cash.

The Emperor's share is by the Hoppo made into sycee, at the Emperor's charge.

The duty of 1 mace per pecul, called peculage, was very lately only 9 candareens. The merchants then, for their house of meeting, or joss house, had only 4 cash per pecul out of the peculage duty; but they have now 1 candareen 4 cash. The distribution of the peculage duty of 1 mace is as follows:

Hoppo	Candareens 3 8
Linguist	2 2
Weighers	0 2
Persons at the first Hoppo house	0 8
Hoppo's guard, or soldiers	1 6
Merchants for their joss house	1 4

Shopkeepers and others who cannot ship off goods, but are forced to employ the Hongists for that purpose, pay 8 mace 8 candareens the pecul for the export duty on tea.

They pay 6 per cent. on the valuation of 8 tales the pecul, which makes their charge more than those who pay only 5 4 ..... 0 4 8 0
Instead of 3 candareens, they pay 5 candareens for the victualling the Hoppo's people, &c. the difference is 0 2 0 0
When the Linguist collects the money, he commonly charges, to make it even 0 0 3 76
Which, with the amount enumerated, as duty on Bohea tea 8 0 8 24

Forms a total of ..... Mace 8 8 0 0 0

The Hong merchants have therefore an advantage over the shopkeeper of 7 1 76 the pecul in shipping off Bohea tea, which is appropriated to defray the charges of the Hong. There is a proportionable advantage to the Hongist for all other goods. Bohea tea is only taken here for the example.

10 per cent. only being deducted for packages, all dealers lose 4,08 per cent. on Bohea tea chests, and 6,66 per cent. per pecul on Singlo chests, and more on smaller chests; but as this 10 per cent. is always deducted on all goods imported, whether in packages or not, as lead and tin, as it is on tutenague exported, the merchants are of opinion they lose nothing by that charge.

There is not any duty of 6 candareens, or 5 4 per cent. on goods imported.

The Emperor's dotchin and the merchants' are the same; the latter have a standard dotchin at their joss house, which agrees with the Emperor's.

The weighers are often bribed by the merchants to make goods imported weigh less than they really do, and those exported, to weigh heavier.

The Emperor's pecul is 132 lbs. 2 oz. 9¼ dec. avoirdupois. One hundred tales in sycee money, weighed by a merchant or a refiner, when carried to the receiver of the customs, is found deficient in weight 1 tale 3 mace, or thereabouts; formerly it was only 3 or 4 mace less: this plunder the Hoppo and his people have.

The Linguist gets 2 cand. 2 cash of the peculage duty on every pecul of goods imported or exported; but he abates from it 20 per cent. that he may be paid in dollar money, instead of money of 75 or less touch: this reduces the 2 cand. 2 cash to 1 cand. 7 cash 6 dec.; so that if a ship import 5000 peculs, and export as many, those 10,000 are only accounted him as 9,000, because 10 per cent. is taken off for package; his gain, therefore, on that ship is 158,4 tales; he has moreover a present of about 70 tales, forming a total of 228 tales 4 mace. What he gets by impositions, cannot be known.

Fine China-ware pays ..... 7 4 per pecul; is valued at 4 0 and the duty is 0 3
Coarse ditto ..... 5 5 ..... 3 0 ..... 2 0

China-ware in chests, of whatever sort, is reckoned fine.
Ditto in bundles of blue and white, is reckoned coarse; if coloured, fine.

PILOTAGE.

The following are the usual rates of pilotage paid by the Company's ships frequenting the port:

From the Lema Islands to Macao.. Span. Dol.	30	10 boats lying on the second bar	10
From Macao to Whampoa	40	Pilot coming on board	20
Cumshaw, or present to pilot	5	4 boats lying on bar below	4
10 boats lying on the second bar	10	Balance of pilotage to Macao	4
Pilot going on board at Whampoa	16	Cumshaw	5

forming a total of 85 dollars inwards, and 59 dollars outwards.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

In no part of the world are provisions more abundant than in China, or of better quality. The prices are in general moderate. All provisions, as before stated, are weighed. The following are the prices:

	Tales.	M.	C.	Cash.	
Bringals	0	0	3	0	per catty.
Capons	0	1	6	0	ditto.
Chesnuts	0	0	8	0	ditto.
Charcoal	0	0	0	7	ditto.
Ducks	0	1	0	0	ditto.
Eels	0	1	0	0	ditto.
Fowls	0	1	3	0	ditto.
Fish	0	0	8	0	ditto.
Flour	0	0	5	0	ditto.
Geese	0	1	2	0	ditto.
Hams	0	2	5	0	ditto.
Lobchocks	0	1	0	0	ditto.
Limes	0	0	3	0	ditto.
Loaves	0	0	4	0	ditto.
Mushrooms	0	3	2	0	ditto.
Oranges	0	0	3	0	ditto.

	Tales.	M.	C.	Cash.	
Pigs	0	1	4	0	per catty.
Pigeons	0	1	8	0	ditto.
Plums	0	2	0	0	ditto.
Pepper	0	2	0	0	ditto.
Pineapples	0	1	0	0	ditto.
Pheasants	0	1	5	0	ditto.
Partridges	0	0	9	0	ditto.
Quails	0	0	3	0	ditto.
Rabbits	0	2	5	0	per pan.
Sugar-candy, fine	0	1	5	0	ditto.
Sugar, soft	0	0	4	0	ditto.
Soy	0	0	6	0	ditto.
Teal	0	0	9	0	each.
Vinegar	0	0	3	0	per catty.
Wax candles	0	5	0	0	ditto.
Yams	0	0	3	0	ditto.

The following is a list of the stores taken on board a ship of 1200 tons at Canton, for the use of the homeward-bound passage. The Company's ships are obliged to take in nine months' provisions in time of war, and six months' in time of peace.

SHIP'S STORES.

1650 catties of beef.
6 calves.
416 catties of pig, 8 in number.
6836 ditto biscuit.
900 ditto fine ditto.
2983 ditto rice.
496 ditto fine ditto.
3080 ditto calavances.
1051 fine flour.
11125 ditto paddy.
4707 ditto gram.
3000 ditto sugar.
3000 ditto yams.
180 ditto wax candles.
449 ditto pumpkins.
443 ditto sweet potatoes.
60 Macao cabbages
Sundry small stores, vegetables, &c.

CABIN STORES.

2160 catties of hay.
400 ditto bran.
635 ditto Macao potatoes.
665 ditto capons, 197 in number.
621 ditto fowls, 240 in number.
192 ditto pigs, 1 sow and 1 boar.
569 ditto ditto, 20 pigs.
6 sheep.
1 cow.
260 catties geese, 50 in number.
60 wild ducks.
72 teal.
12 wild geese.
48 pigeons.
36 quails.
1000 eggs.
100 catties of hams, and pig's faces.
Sundry vegetables, fruits, &c.

Articles procurable at Canton, with Directions how to chuse them.

AGATES

Are generally found in pebbles, kidney shaped, variegated with veins and clouds, and are arranged according to the different colours of their grounds. Of those with a white ground there are three species; the white veined, the milky, and the lead coloured. Of those with a red ground there are four species; the flesh coloured, the blood coloured, the clouded, and the red. Of those with a yellow ground there are two species; the yellow and the pale yellow.

The white veined Agate is most commonly known by the name of the Mocha stone. It is of a very firm, compact, and fine texture, though it is found in the shape of a flinty pebble stone. The sizes are various, from one to eight inches in diameter. The veins of this stone are very beautifully disposed in different figures, but generally there are many concentric irregular circles drawn round, from one to three points, in various places. They are commonly a little whiter than the ground, though sometimes they can scarcely be seen. Those of this kind are of the highest value, and contain figures of trees, mosses, sea-plants, and the like. This kind of agate, when perfect, is only found in India, but there are some of an inferior sort to be met with in Germany.

The dull milky Agate is not so valuable as the former, though it is of a very firm texture. It is found in the shape of common flint stones, and from one to ten inches in diameter. It is of the colour of milk, or rather like that of cream, and when broken, has a smooth glossy surface. It is more opaque than the former, but will bear a very fine polish. This species is common in India.

The lead coloured Agate, with black and white veins, is of a very fine, firm, and compact texture, though it is found, like the former, in the shape of common flint, and of as rugged a surface. The colour is of a pale blueish grey, and is often without variation, though it has sometimes black and sometimes white veins, which are generally towards the centre of the stone. It is very hard, and will bear a fine polish; it is found in India, where they make cups and boxes of it.

The flesh coloured Agate is not so valuable as either of the former, though it has a firm compact texture, and is from one to ten inches in diameter. The flesh colour is very faint and almost whitish, yet it is never entirely wanting: sometimes it has no veins at all, and at other times it abounds in veins, spots, or clouds. The spots are generally very small, about the size of a pin's head; when broken, it is very smooth and glossy, though it is not always of the same transparency.

The blood coloured Agate is more beautiful than most of this class. It is always of a deep blood red colour, sometimes throughout, but more frequently variegated with a pale blue and brown; the blue always surrounds the red, and inclines to the colour of whey, but it is in no other part of the stone. The brown is of the colour of horn, and generally appears in irregular veins, sometimes in such plenty as to make the ground to the stone, and the red with its blue edges only the variegation. This stone is much esteemed when well marked, and is chiefly used for the tops of snuff-boxes.

The clouded and spotted flesh coloured Agate is of a very fine close texture, though it is subject to flaws and cracks when the pieces are large, for which reason the lesser stones are preferred: in general it is but little esteemed.

The red Agate, variegated with yellow, is of the colour of red lead, of a fine pure equal texture, with a smooth regular surface, and is commonly found in the shape of a pebble stone. It is from one to four

inches in diameter, and its ground is of a paler red with one that is deeper, disposed in concentric veins round from one to three points; but this does not appear without close examination. Besides these it has irregular bright yellow blotches that are never intersected by the veins, but are either within or on the outside thereof; and they are always extremely short, never above one sixth of an inch in length. It is very hard, and will bear a fine polish.

The yellow Agate has been found from one to seven inches in diameter, in various shapes and sizes; but they are all of a very firm compact texture. It is sometimes of the same colour throughout; sometimes it consists of irregular veins, and at others it has a pale and almost white ground, veined and spotted with a strong yellow, exactly resembling that of fine yellow bees-wax. It is very hard, and capable of a fine polish; but the degree of transparency differs greatly, for sometimes it is as much so as the rest, and at others it is almost entirely opaque. It is found in India, and is used for making knife-handles.

The pale yellow Agate, variegated with white, black, and green, is called the Leonina, from its resemblance to a lion's skin. It is more variegated than the rest of the stones of this kind, and has a fine compact close texture, though it is found in very irregular shapes, with a rugged outside. The ground is always of a pale yellow, but very differently disposed. It breaks with some difficulty into pieces with fine smooth surfaces. It is brought from India, but is not commonly known, being very scarce.

The blackish veined brown Agate is found in pieces that have a pretty smooth surface, though of an irregular shape, from two to seven inches in diameter. The brown is pretty deep, and freely clouded, spotted, and veined with a colour that is almost black, and the veins are paler and browner than the other variegations. The veins are disposed in irregular concentric circles, and the innermost are generally broadest. It is capable of a very beautiful polish, and is commonly cut into seals, buttons, heads of canes, and the tops of snuff-boxes. It is frequently adorned with fictitious colours, which sink into the substance so much, that they appear like the natural veins of the stone, and then it is of great value.

ALUM

Is an article of considerable trade at China, from whence it is carried to various parts of India. It is generally in large lumps or pieces, clear and transparent. It is seldom imported into England, it being produced in these large quantities. In March sale, 1808, 41 cwt. of alum were sold at the Company's sale for £56. The permanent duty is 11s. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty 3s. 8d. per cwt. making in the whole 14s. 8d. per cwt.

AMOMUM VERUM,

Or true Amomum, is the fruit or seed vessel of a plant growing in Arabia, several parts of the East Indies, and China. It is in figure like a grape, and contains, under a membraneous covering, a number of small rough angular seeds, of a blackish brown colour on the outside, and whiter within. The seeds are lodged in three distinct cells, and those in each cell joined closely together, so that the fruit, on being opened, appears to contain but three seeds. Ten or twelve of these pedicles, about an inch long, stand together upon a woody stalk. The seeds are a strong grateful aromatic, of a penetrating fragrant smell, and of a warm pungent taste. Chuse amomum that is fresh and large, the pods being round, of a light colour, inclining to grey, heavy, and well filled with odoriferous grains: to have the grains neat and clean, they should be separated from the shell, which is of little value. The pods which are light, and of which the grains are wrinkled, are also of little worth.

ANGUSTURA BARK.

This bark was first imported into England in 1788, and is the produce of a tree growing in Abyssinia, and other parts of Africa, and on the Spanish Main. It is in pieces about 6 inches long and 1½ broad, curled up; the external surface is whitish, the substance close and compact, of a bitter taste, and when powdered, the colour of rhubarb; it claims a high rank as an antiseptic. In the September sale, 1803, 13 cwt. imported from India, sold for £14; and in the March sale, 1804, 142 cwt. were sold for £121.

This bark, not being enumerated in the book of rates on East India commodities, pays a permanent duty of £37 10s. per cent. and a temporary or war duty of £12 10s. per cent.

ANISEEDS, STAR,

Are the produce of a small tree growing in China and the Philippine Islands. It consists of rusty coloured hard wrinkled husks, about half an inch long, joined together by their ends to the number of six or seven, in the form of a star, each including a glossy seed that is internally white. The husks of these seeds have a glowing sweetish aromatic taste, but not fiery. The seeds have little smell, but fill the mouth in chewing with an agreeable flavour, of the same nature with that of the husks, but weaker, accompanied with greater sweetness. Such as are broken and mildewed should be rejected.

The following are the quantities imported and sold at the East India Company's sales in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive, together with the sale amount and average price per cwt.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.		Aver. per Cwt.		
	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	£	s.	d.
1804	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
1805	—	—	266	2947	266	2947	11	1	7
1806	—	—	101	1590	101	1590	15	14	10
1807	—	—	151	1943	151	1943	12	17	4
1808	404	2837	307	2060	711	4897	6	17	9

8 cwt. of aniseeds are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty thereon is £1 8s. 6d. and the temporary or war duty 9s. 6d. making in the whole £1 18s. per cwt.

BEN, OR BEHEN.

The ben nut is the produce of a tree growing spontaneously in the East Indies and China, of a light colour, about the size of a filbert, of a triangular but somewhat round shape, enclosing a kernel of the same figure, covered with a white skin. The nuts should be chosen of a disagreeable, bitter, oily taste, fresh, plump, and sound; the decayed and broken should be rejected.

The Ben Root is of two sorts, white and red. The white ben root is grey without, and inclining to a white within, of a taste almost insipid, which, however, leaves a disagreeable bitterness when kept some time in the mouth. The red ben is a fibrous root, brown on the outside, and inclining to red within. Both sorts should be chosen fresh, dry, of a deep colour, and an aromatic astringent taste.

BLOOD-STONE.

This stone is hard, and capable of an elegant polish; it does not approach near to transparency; its general colour is green with a blueish cast, having a number of blood red spots, veins, or clouds in it. The best comes from India, and is in request with the Chinese as an ornament to their girdle-clasps. Those such as are of a fine deep green, smooth and shining, full of bright red spots, like drops of blood on it, in large pieces, free from cracks and flaws.

CAMPHIRE, CHINA.

This article was long supposed to be prepared from the Baroos or Sumatra camphire, but is now ascertained to be the genuine produce of a tree growing in the Chinese dominions and in Japan, different from that of Sumatra or Borneo. It is prepared from a decoction of the wood and roots of the tree, and cut into small pieces. It is made into cakes, which incline to a greyish colour, and are composed of small grains, mixed with some impure matter; they are not very heavy, nor very compact, but easily crumble to pieces. If these cakes be tolerably pure, they will, when set on fire, burn away, and leave but few ashes; the fewer the better. What is brought from China is of two kinds, refined and unrefined; but the latter is preferred, the duty thereon being much less than on that which is refined.

The Dutch used to receive large quantities of Camphire from Japan, part of which is sent to their settlements in India, and the remainder to Holland. The average quantity imported into Holland in the years 1785 to 1791 inclusive, was 41,650 lbs. per annum. This sort is considered superior to that of China.

The following are the quantities of refined and unrefined camphire imported and sold at the Company's sales in the years 1804 to 1808, together with the sale amount, and the average price per cwt.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale		Total.		Aver. per Cwt.		
	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	£	s.	d.
1804	904	19,865	—	—	904	19,865	21	19	6
1805	816	18,300	83	1744	899	20,044	22	6	0
1806	682	12,429	399	6663	1081	19,092	17	13	3
1807	1819	22,659	575	6690	2394	29,349	12	5	1
1808	143	2,170	—	—	143	2,170	15	3	6

15 cwt. of camphire are allowed to a ton; but it is not permitted to be imported in ships from China. The permanent duty on refined camphire is 1s. 3d. per lb. and the war duty 5d. and on unrefined, the permanent duty 9d. and war duty 3d.

CASSIA LIGNEA

Is the bark of a tree growing in China, on Sumatra, the Malabar Coast, and other parts of India. It is a different species of the same genus with the cinnamon tree, and is separated from the branches of this tree in the same manner as cinnamon. They take off the two barks together, and separating the rough outer one, which is of no value, they lay the inner bark to dry, which rolls up, and becomes what we call cassia lignea. It resembles cinnamon in appearance, smell, and taste; the best is imported from China in small pipes or tubes, sometimes the thickness of the ordinary tubes of cinnamon, and of the same length; but usually they are shorter and thicker, and the bark itself coarser. It is of a tolerably smooth surface, and brownish colour, with some cast of red, but much less so than cinnamon. It is of a less fibrous texture, and more brittle, of an aromatic smell and taste, truly of the cinnamon kind, but the smell weaker, and the taste much less acrid and biting. It is distinguished from cinnamon by this want of pungency, and yet more by its being of a mucilaginous or gelatinous quality, when taken into the mouth, and held there some time. There are some that incline to a yellow, and some to a brown colour; but these varieties depend on accidents that do not much affect its value. It should be chosen in thin pieces, of an agreeable, biting, and aromatic taste, and the best is that which approaches nearest to cinnamon in flavour; that which is small and broken, should be rejected. The Malabar kind is thicker and darker coloured than the China kind, and is more subject to foul packing; therefore each bundle should be carefully inspected, or you will have a good deal of dirt and rubbish in it.

The following are the quantities imported and sold at the Company's sales from 1804 to 1808 inclusive, the greater part of which was brought from China, together with the sale amount and average price per cwt.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.		Average per cwt.
	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	£ s. d.
1804	668	8492	839	8941	1507	17433	11 11 4
1805	1782	18971	2500	24031	4282	43002	10 0 10
1806	1241	4868	347	3013	1588	7881	4 19 4
1807	824	3242	87	539	911	3781	4 3 0
1808	203	1489	178	2402	381	3891	10 4 5

8 cwt. of cassia lignea are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty on it is £8 8s. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty £2 16s. making in the whole £11 4s. per cwt.

CASSIA FISTULA

Is the fruit of a tree that grows spontaneously in Egypt, and some parts of the East Indies, and from thence has been introduced into America. It is a long slender pod, of about an inch in diameter, and from one to two feet in length; externally it is of a dark brown colour, somewhat wrinkled, with a large seam running the whole length upon one side, and another less visible on the other. It is yellowish within, divided by woody partitions into a number of little cells, containing hard, flattish, oval seeds, enclosed in a soft black pulp; this pulp has a sweetish taste, followed by more or less of an ungrateful kind of acrimony. The oriental cassia has a more agreeable sweetness, and less acrimony than the American, to which it is preferred on that account. The eye may distinguish them from each other; the oriental pods being smoother and smaller, having a thinner rind, with a pulp of a deeper shining black colour than the American. The oriental cassia should be chosen in full and fresh pods, heavy, and not rattling when shaken; when broken, the pulp, which is the medicinal part, should be of a shining black colour, sweet and agreeable, with little or no roughness; and this roughness is predominant when the fruit has been gathered unripe; neither should it be mouldy or dry, which is the case when it has been long kept.

10 cwt. of cassia fistula are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is £2 16s. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty 18s. 8d. making in the whole £3 14s. 8d. per cwt.

CASSIA BUDS

Are said to be the berry of the cassia tree, and are brought from China; they bear some resemblance to a clove, but are smaller, and when fresh, possess a fine rich cinnamon flavour. They are to be chosen sound, fresh, and free from stalks and dirt; they are occasionally packed with cassia lignea, by which it is said the flavour of both is considerably improved.

The following are the quantities imported and sold at the East India sales in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive, together with the sale amount and average price per cwt.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.		Average per Cwt.
	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	£ s. d.
1804	107	860	571	3923	678	4783	7 1 1
1805	266	2020	254	2180	520	4200	8 1 6
1806	—	—	292	1737	292	1737	5 18 11
1807	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1808	—	—	54	628	54	628	11 9 0

8 cwt. of cassia buds are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is £5 12s. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty £1 17s. 4d. making in the whole £7 9s. 4d. per cwt.

CASSIA OIL.

The best is manufactured at China, and the finer kind differs but little in its properties from that of cinnamon, for which it is generally substituted. There are few better modes of proving its goodness than by taking the point of a pin, dipping it in the oil, and rubbing it on the back of the hand; if genuine, the smell continues a long time, and does not readily fly off; but if after remaining some time, it partakes of any other smell, it is adulterated.

The permanent duty on cassia oil is 1s. 6d. per oz. and the temporary or war duty 6d. making in the whole 2s. per ounce.

CASSUMANAR

Is a moderately large root of a plant growing in the East Indies, which we usually meet with cut into irregular slices, of various forms, for the sake of drying. The root is of a tuberous and irregular shape, bent and jointed, or knotted; its surface is somewhat wrinkled, and its cortical part is marked, at certain distances, with a sort of circle or ring, somewhat prominent, which surrounds it; it is of a close texture, very hard, and heavy. It will not cut freely with a knife, nor easily powder in a mortar. When cut, it shews a smooth shining surface, of a dirty greyish white, with an equal admixture of yellow. It is of a brisk aromatic smell, somewhat resembling ginger, and of a pungent bitterish taste. It is to be chosen in large firm pieces, as plump as can be, of the most fragrant smell, and of an acrid taste. It is hardly liable to any adulteration, except putting pieces of the long zedoary along with it, which is easily discovered by the size and figure of the latter, (scarcely ever exceeding an inch in diameter, frequently less), and by its internal white colour, when broken.

CHINA ROOT

Is the root of a species of climber in China; it is oblong and thick jointed, full of irregular knobs, of a reddish brown colour on the outside, and of a pale red within; when cut, it exhibits a close, smooth, glossy surface; while new, it will snap short, and look glittering within; if old, the dust flies from it when broken, and is light and kecky. China root should be chosen large, sound, heavy, and of a pale red colour internally. It is of no value if the worm be in it. Since 1804 very little has been imported into England; in the sales of that year 1487 cwt. were sold for £1194.

11 cwt. of China root are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is £4 4s. per cwt. and the war duty £1 8s. making in the whole £5 12s. per cwt.

CHINA WARE.

This article, now so common in many parts of Europe, was not known to the ancients. Marco Paulo is the first among the moderns who mentions it. The Portuguese began to import it soon after their first voyage to China, but it was a considerable time before the use of it became extensive. Large quantities were formerly brought from China to England; but the heavy duties levied upon it, and the great improvements which have taken place in our own manufactures, have very much reduced the home demand for China ware. Connoisseurs divide China ware into six classes, viz. the trouted China, the old white, the Japan, the Chinese, the Chinese Japan, and the Indian; these several appellations rather denote a difference that strikes the eye, than a real distinction.

1. Trouted China, from its resemblance to the scales of a trout, seems the most ancient; it has two imperfections—the paste is always very brown, and the surface appears full of cracks; these cracks are

not only in the glazing, but in the China ware itself, and therefore this sort has but a small degree of transparency, does not sound so well, is very brittle, and bears the fire better than any other. To hide these cracks, it is painted with a variety of colours; in this kind of ornament its only value consists.

II.—The old white China.—This is very valuable, but very scarce, and little used. The paste of it seems to be extremely short, and fit only for small vases, figures, and other ornamental China; it is sold in trade for Japan, though it is certain that some very fine of the same kind is made in China. It is of two different hues, the one a perfect cream-colour, the other a blueish white, which makes it look more transparent, and the glazing seems to be more incorporated into this last.

III. Japan China is not so easily distinguished, as most people imagine, from the finest sort made in China. It is stated that in general the glazing of the true Japan is whiter, and has less of the blueish cast than the porcelain of China; that the ornaments are laid on with less profusion; that the blue is brighter, and the patterns and flowers are not so whimsical, and more closely copied from nature; and some writers tell us, that the Chinese who trade to Japan, bring home some pieces of China that make more show than their own, but are not so solid; and that they serve to ornament their apartments, but that they never use them, because they will not bear the fire well: all China glazed with coloured varnish, whether sea-green, blueish, or purple, is said to be Chinese. All the Japan brought into Europe comes from the Dutch, who are the only Europeans that are suffered to come into that empire. Possibly they may have chosen it out of the porcelains brought there every year by the Chinese, or they may have purchased it at Canton: in either case the distinction between the porcelain of Japan and that of China would not be founded on fact, but merely on prejudice. From this opinion, it is plain that what is sold in Europe for Japan, is only very fine China.

IV. China Porcelain.—The glazing of this sort has a bluer cast than that of Japan, is more highly coloured, and the patterns are more whimsical; the paste is in general whiter, and more compact; the grain finer and closer, and the China thinner. Among the several sorts made in China, there is one that is very ancient; it is painted of a deep blue, a beautiful red, or a green like verdigrease, and is coarse, thick, and very heavy. Some of this is trouted, and the grain is often dry and brown; that which is not trouted, has a clear sound, but both want transparency: it is sold for old China, and the finest pieces are supposed to come from Japan. The essential difference between this and other China is, that it is made of a shorter paste, and is very hard and solid; the pieces of this China have always at the bottom the marks of three or four supporters, which were put to prevent its giving way in baking. By this contrivance the Chinese have succeeded in making very large pieces of porcelain. The China which is not of this sort, and which is called modern China, is of a longer paste, finer grain, higher glazed, whiter, and clearer; it seldom has the marks of the supporters, and its transparency has nothing glassy in it. All that is made with this paste is easily turned, so that it is visible the workman's hand is glided over it, as over a fine smooth clay; there is an infinite variety of this sort of China, both as to form, colouring, workmanship, and price.

V. Chinese Japan.—So called because it unites the ornaments of the porcelain, which is thought to come from Japan, with those that are more in the Chinese taste. Among this kind of porcelain there is some that is ornamented with a very fine blue with white scrolls; the glazing of this kind is remarkable for being a true white enamel; whereas that of the other sorts is half transparent, for the Chinese glazing is never entirely so. All the above sorts of porcelain are manufactured in the province of Kiamsi. In the neighbourhood of Canton is made the kind we commonly see, and that is known by the name of

VI. India China.—The paste of which this is manufactured, is long and yielding; but in general the colours, especially the blue and the red, are far inferior to what comes from Japan and the interior

parts of China. All the colours except the blue stand up in lumps, and are very badly laid on. It is of two kinds, the best of which is denominated Nankeen China.

The articles brought to Europe consist of table and tea services, painted jars, garden pots and stools, butter-cups, fruit-baskets, &c.

The following are the usual contents of a table-service, and of long and short breakfast sets of China ware, and the mode in which they are counted at Canton:

A TABLE SET OF 170 PIECES.

72 large flat plates	72
Soup plates	24
Small flat plates	12
Small deep plates	12
Dishes of 6 sizes, 3 in each	18
Fruit dishes	6
Salad bowls	2
2 soup tureens, with tops and stands	6
2 pickle ditto, with ditto	6
4 sauce boats and stands	8
Saltcellars	4

If it is of the very best blue and white stone, it will cost from 55 to 65 tales.

BREAKFAST SET OF 20 PIECES.

6 large cups and saucers	12
1 tea-pot and cover	2
1 slop bason	1
1 bread and butter plate	1
1 milk pot	1
1 sugar bason, stand, and cover	3

If the best blue and white stone, it will cost 3 tales.

LONG TEA SET OF 101 PIECES.

2 coffee pots with covers	2
2 tea pots of 2 sizes	4
1 milk pot	2
1 cream pot	1
2 tea canisters	4
2 large sugar cups, plates, and covers	6
2 sneakers and saucers	4
13 breakfast cups and saucers	26
13 tea cups and saucers	26
13 coffee cups and saucers	26

If the best blue and white stone China, it will cost from 11 to 13 tales.

TEA SET OF 49 PIECES.

12 tea cups and saucers	24
12 coffee cups	12
1 tea-pot and stand	3
1 sugar bason, cover, and stand	3
1 milk pot, cover, and stand	3
1 tea canister and cover	2
1 slop bason and stand	2

If the best blue and white stone, it will cost 5 or 6 tales.

50 cubical feet of China ware are allowed to a ton, which is about four chests of the usual dimensions. The permanent duty is £82 per cent. and the temporary or war duty £27 6s. 8d. making £99 6s. 8d. per cent. besides the Company's charges, which make in the whole about £108 per cent.

The Company allow 20 tons of China ware, fans, pictures, and lackered ware to be brought on each ship from China; in other ships only two tons are allowed in each, on paying the customs, and to the Company 9 per cent. on the sale value of China and lackered wares, and on other articles 7 per cent.; all exceeding are charged £30 for each ton, and so in proportion for a greater or less quantity.

CINNABAR.

A ponderous, red, sulphureous ore of mercury, produced in various parts of the world, as well as in China. It comes from the latter place in pieces of an irregular size, with a smooth outside. It is of an elegant deep red colour, both externally and interpally, which is much improved by grinding the lumps to powder. The heaviest cinnabar should be chosen free from earthy or stony matter, and such as will leave a beautiful red on white paper; by heating a piece of iron red hot, or by holding a little on the blade of a knife by the fire, you may discover if it is mixed; when genuine, it will burn entirely away, but if foul, there will appear a black or white powder, according to what it is mixed with.

CONTRAYERVA

Is the root of a small plant growing in the East and West Indies. It was first brought to Europe by Sir Francis Drake in 1581. It is in pieces from one to two inches long, and half an inch thick, full of knots, surrounded with fibres of a reddish yellow colour externally, and pale within; it has a peculiar kind of aromatic smell, a somewhat astringent, warm, bitterish taste, with a light and sweetish kind of acrimony when long chewed. These roots should be chosen plump and fresh, free from fibres and decay. They are seldom brought from the East Indies.

COPPER, WHITE.

In Du Halde's History of China is the following account of white copper. "The most extraordinary copper is called De-tong, or *white* copper; it is white when dug out of the mine, and still more white within than without. It appears, by a vast number of experiments made at Pekin, that its colour is owing to no mixture—on the contrary, all mixtures diminish its beauty; for, when it is rightly managed, it looks exactly like silver, and were there not a necessity of mixing a little tutenague, or some such metal with it, to soften it, and prevent its brittleness, it would be so much the more extraordinary, as this sort of copper is, perhaps, to be met with no where but in China, and that only in the province of Yun-nan." Notwithstanding what is here said of the colour of this copper being owing to no mixture, it is certain that the white copper, as imported into England, is a mixed metal; so that the ore from whence it is extracted, must consist of various metallic substances.

CORUNDUM

Is the Indian name for the fossil called by the British lapidaries, Adamantine Spar. The first specimens of it came from China; its colour is grey, of different shades; the larger pieces are opaque, but the thin pieces and the edges are transparent; the second variety comes from India, and is considerably whiter than that from China, and it is this which is called corundum by the natives. The remarkable quality of corundum, and for which it is chiefly valued, is its extreme hardness; it scratches every substance but diamond, and is therefore of great value to lapidaries and seal-cutters. It is used throughout India and China for polishing stones, &c. It is but little harder than the ruby, the sapphire, or oriental topaz. It is far superior to emery, particularly for grinding on the wheel, to which it adheres like diamond dust.

CUBEBS

Are the produce of a tree growing on Java and in China. The cubeb is a small dried fruit, like a pepper-corn, but generally somewhat longer; it is of a greyish brown colour, and composed of a wrinkled external covering enclosing a single seed, blackish on the surface, and white within; it is a warm spice, of a pleasant aromatic smell, and of a hot, pungent taste, weaker than that of pepper, but of the same kind; its acrimony remains long upon the tongue. We sometimes meet with this article in an unripe state, when it is very small, the covering much wrinkled, and the enclosed seed of a softer kind than when ripe. Cubebs should be chosen large, fresh, sound, and the heaviest that can be procured. From their resemblance to pepper, from which its difference is a short slender stalk, it is often mixed with that article. Cubebs are seldom imported into England; but large quantities used to be brought by the Dutch. The average amount imported into Holland for seven years, 1785 to 1791, was upwards of 9,000 lbs. annually.

16 cwt. of cubebs are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is £2 16s. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty 18s. 8d. making in the whole £3 14s. 8d. per cwt.

DRAGON'S BLOOD.

This drug is said to be obtained from a large species of rattan, growing abundantly on Sumatra, where it is manufactured and exported to China: it is there held in much estimation. It is either in oval drops, wrapped up in flag leaves, or in large and generally more impure masses, composed of smaller tears. It is externally and internally of a deep dusky red colour, and when powdered, it should become of a bright crimson; but if it be black, it is worth little. It easily melts over the fire, and is inflammable, diffusing a singular but not disagreeable smell. When broken, and held up against a strong light, it is somewhat transparent. It has little or no smell or taste; what it has of the latter is resinous and astringent. The dragon's blood in drops is much preferable to that in cakes, the latter being more friable, and less compact, resinous, and pure than the former. Other compositions, coloured with true dragon's blood, or other materials, have been sold instead of this article. Some of these dissolve like gums in water, and others crackle in the fire without proving inflammable; whereas the genuine dragon's blood readily melts and catches flame, and is scarcely acted on by watery liquors. It is most prudent to purchase the drops, rejecting the impure masses.

The following are the quantities of dragon's blood imported and sold at the East India sales, in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive, together with the sale amount, and average price per cwt.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale		Total.		Aver. per Cwt.		
	Cwt.	£	Cwt	£	Cwt.	£	£	s	d
1804	5	43	48	539	53	582	11	0	0
1805	—	—	103	376	103	376	3	13	0
1806	—	—	26	258	26	258	9	19	11
1807	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	
1808	19	215	—	—	19	215	11	6	4

20 cwt. of dragon's blood are allowed to a ton. This article, not being enumerated in the list of drugs, pays a permanent duty of 37½ per cent. and a war duty of 12½, in all 50 per cent. on the sale amount.

GALANGAL.

There are two species of this root, the great and small; of these the latter is most esteemed.

Great galangal is a tough woody root, about an inch and a half thick, of a brown colour on the outside, and whitish within, having a very thin bark, which is beset, at about a quarter of an inch distance, with rings or circles. It is of a bitterish taste, and somewhat aromatic, but weaker in all its qualities than the small galangal, which is a much shorter and smaller root. It is to be met with in pieces about half an inch thick, seldom so long as two inches, of a reddish brown colour on the outside, and a pale red within, being knotty, and having several circular rings that stand out beyond the rest of the surface. It is of an extremely firm compact texture, but not heavy. It cuts with difficulty, and the knife leaves a glossy smooth appearance. It is to be chosen full and plump, of a bright colour, very firm and sound, and of an acrid, hot, peppery taste, leaving a stronger impression in the mouth than that spice does.

The following are the quantities imported and sold in the years 1804 to 1806 inclusive:

March Sale .....1804..... 896 cwt. sold for £1810 .....average.... £2 0 5 per cwt.
September Sale ..1805..... 104 ditto..... 264 ..... ditto .....2 10 9 ditto.
September Sale ..1806..... 10 ditto..... 18 ..... ditto .....1 16 0 ditto.

12 cwt. of galangal are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is £1 8s. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty 9s. 4d. making in the whole £1 17s. 4d. per cwt.

GAMBOGE

Is the concrete juice of a tall tree with spreading opposite branches, a native of Cambodia and China; it is in cakes or rolls, externally of a brownish yellow, internally of a deep reddish orange colour; of a smooth surface, equal and uniform through its whole texture. It has no smell, and when first chewed, makes but little impression on the taste; but after remaining some time in the mouth, discovers a considerable acrimony. If it be wetted and rubbed upon the nail, it gives a curious bright lemon colour, by which, and its appearing smooth and free from impurities, it is known to be good; if applied to the flame of a candle, it burns with a white flame, leaving behind a greyish ash. The larger cakes, and such as are dark coloured, should be rejected.

The following are the quantities imported and sold in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive, together with the sale amount, and average price per cwt.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.		Aver. per Cwt.		
	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	£	s.	d.
1804	—	—	64	1270	64	1270	19	16	10
1805	—	—	51	1095	51	1095	21	9	5
1806	—	—	65	1592	65	1592	24	9	10
1807	—	—	30	1048	30	1048	34	18	8
1808	34	929	112	2175	146	3104	21	5	2

20 cwt. of gamboge are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is £5 12s. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty £1 17s. 4d. making in the whole £7 9s. 4d. per cwt.

GINGER, PRESERVED.

The West Indies and China furnish this commodity; the former is preferred, but that from China, when good, is always in estimation, and when prepared from the young roots, is almost transparent. It should be chosen in large and somewhat transparent pieces, of a bright yellow colour, and not fibrous or stringy when cut. Such as is dark coloured and small, should be rejected, and the jars should be carefully sealed up, to prevent insects getting in.

The permanent duty upon preserved ginger is 2s. per lb. and the temporary or war duty 8d. making in the whole 2s. 8d. per lb.

GINSENG.

This root is produced in Chinese Tartary, and in several parts of North America; the latter is what we generally see in this country, and is an article of trade to China. Large quantities used formerly to be sent from England; but since the Americans declared themselves independent, they have carried it direct to China, so that the export from this country has fallen off considerably.

The dried root, as it is imported from America, is seldom so large as the little finger, about three or four inches long, frequently forked, transversely wrinkled, of a horny texture both within and without, of a yellowish white colour; to the taste it discovers a mucilaginous sweetness, approaching to that of liquorice, accompanied with some degree of bitterness, and a slight aromatic warmth, with little or no smell. Ginseng for the China market should be chosen in large roots, sound, firm, and of a fresh colour, moderately heavy, not very tough, but such as will snap short, free from worm-holes and dirt.

Ginseng has been gathered time immemorial in Chinese Tartary. In 1709 the Emperor of China sent an army of 10,000 Tartars in search of this root, and to bring as much as they could find; every one was to give two catties of the best to the Emperor, and to sell the rest for its weight in silver, for their own benefit. By this means the Emperor gained 20,000 catties in one year.

About 1730 the French carried on a brisk trade in ginseng: they gathered large quantities, and sent it to France, whence it was exported to China, and generally sold to great advantage there at its first outset; but the price afterwards fell considerably, from the Chinese fancying the American ginseng to be inferior to their own.

The permanent duty on ginseng is 10½d. per lb. and the war duty 3¼d. per lb.

GOLD.

A considerable trade is carried on in China in gold, which they receive in dust at the various eastern islands, and afterwards melt into shoes or bars, which, when pure, have a depression in the middle, from the sinking of the metal in cooling, with a number of circular rings like those on the ball of the finger, but larger.

In trading in gold, great circumspection is necessary, as many frauds are practised: the shoes are often gilt over with a thick coat of metal, finer than the interior part; and it often happens that lumps of other metals are mixed with it, generally silver.

When the mass is much adulterated, the fraud can be discovered at sight, the middle being elevated instead of depressed, and the sides uneven and knobby. If it is suspected to be gilt with a thick coat of metal, finer than the internal part, it should be raised with a graver or chisel to some depth, so that the exterior coat may be broken through: cutting the piece in two is a less certain way of discovering this abuse, the outer coat being frequently drawn along with the chisel so as to cover the divided parts.

Gold, when pure, is of a full yellow colour; it is never obscured with tarnish or rust. When alloyed with copper, the colour inclines to a reddish hue; silver makes it pale, and if the proportion of silver be as one to four, a greenish hue is produced.

The degree of fineness of gold, or the proportion of alloy it contains, is accounted by imaginary weights called carats. The whole mass is conceived to be divided into 24 parts, or carats, and so many twenty-fourth parts as it contains of pure gold, it is called gold of so many carats, or so many carats fine. Thus gold of 18 carats is a mixture of which 18 parts in 24 are pure gold, and the other 6 parts an inferior metal; and in like manner gold of 20 carats contain 20 parts of pure gold and 4 of alloy. The standard of the English gold coin is 22 carats fine, so that in a guinea there are 22 parts of pure gold and 2 parts of alloy.

Those who are accustomed to the inspection of gold, variously alloyed, can judge nearly, from the colour of any given mass, the proportion of alloy it contains, provided the species of alloy is known. Different compositions of gold with different proportions of the metals which it is commonly alloyed with, are formed into oblong pieces, called needles, and kept in readiness for assisting in this examination, as standards of comparison.

The proportions in the composition of the several needles are adjusted in a regular series, according to the carat weights before explained. The first needle consists of fine gold, or of 24 carats; the second of 23½ carats of fine gold, and half a carat of alloy; the third of 23 carats of fine gold, and one carat of alloy; and so on, the gold diminishing, and the alloy increasing, by half a carat in each needle, down to the twentieth carat; all below this are made at differences of whole carats, half a carat being scarcely distinguishable by the colour of the mass, when the proportion of alloy is so considerable. Some make the needles no lower than to twelve carats, that is, a mixture of equal parts of gold and alloy; others go as low as one carat, or one part of gold to twenty-three of alloy.

Four sets of these needles are commonly directed: one in which pure silver is used for the alloy; another with a mixture of two parts of silver, and one of copper; the third with a mixture of two parts of copper to one of silver; and the fourth with equal parts of the two; to which some add a fifth set

with copper only, an alloy which sometimes occurs, though much more rarely than the others. If needles so low as three or four carats can be of any use, it should seem to be only in the first set; for in the others the proportion of copper being large, the differences in colour of different sorts of copper itself, will be as great as those which result from very considerable differences in the quantity of gold. When the copper is nearly equal in quantity to the gold, very little can be judged by the colour of the mass.

The colours are best examined by means of strokes drawn with the metals on a particular kind of stone, brought chiefly from Germany, and called from this use a touchstone; the best sort of which is of a deep black colour, moderately hard, and of a smooth but not polished surface. If it is too smooth, soft gold will not easily leave a mark upon it, and if rough, the mark proves imperfect. If very hard, the frequent cleaning of it from the marks, by rubbing it with tripoli, or a piece of charcoal wetted with water, gives the surface too great a smoothness; and if very soft, it is liable to be scratched in the cleaning. In want of the proper kind of stone, moderately smooth pieces of flint are the best substitutes; the more those approach in colour to the other, the better.

The piece of gold to be examined, being well cleaned in some convenient part of its surface, a stroke is to be made with it on the stone, and another close by it, with such of the touch-needles as appear to come the nearest to it in colour. If the colour of both upon the stone is exactly the same, it is judged that the given mass is of the same fineness with the needle; if different, other needles must be tried, till one is found which exactly corresponds with it. To do this readily, practice only can teach.

In making the strokes, both the given piece and the needle of comparison are to be rubbed several times backwards and forwards upon the stone, that the marks may be strong and full, not less than a quarter of an inch long, and about the eighth or a tenth of an inch broad; both marks are to be wetted before the examination of them, their colours being thus rendered more distinct. A stroke which has been drawn some days, is never to be compared with a fresh one, as the colour may have suffered an alteration from the air, the fine atoms left upon the touchstone being much more susceptible of such alterations than the metal in the mass. If the piece is supposed to be superficially heightened by art in its colour, that part of it which the stroke is designed to be made with, should be previously rubbed on another part of the stone, or rather on a rougher kind of stone than the common touchstones, that a fresh surface of the metal may be exposed.

The metallic compositions made to resemble gold in colour, are readily known by means of a drop or two of aqua-fortis, which has no effect upon gold, but discharges the marks made by all its known imitations. That the touchstone may be able to support this trial, it becomes a necessary character of it not to be corrosible by acids, a character which shews it to be essentially different from the marbles, whereof it is by many writers reckoned a species. If gold is debased by an admixture of any considerable quantity of these compositions, aqua-fortis will in this case also discharge so much of the mark as was made by the base metal, and leave only that of the gold, which will now appear discontinued or in specks. Silver and copper are in like manner eaten out from gold on the touchstone; and hence some judgment may thus be formed of the fineness of the metal, from the proportion of the remaining gold to the vacuities.

It has been observed that hard gold appears on the touchstone less fine than it really is. It may be presumed that this difference does not proceed from the simple hardness, but from the hardness being occasioned by an admixture of such metallic bodies as debase the colour in a greater degree than an equal quantity of the common alloy. Silver and copper are the only metals usually found mixed with gold, whether in bullion or in coins, and the only ones whose quantity is attempted to be judged of by this method of trial.

The Chinese are extremely expert in the use of the touchstone, so as to distinguish by it so small a difference in the fineness as half a touch. It is the only test by which they regulate the sale of their gold to the Europeans, and it is subject to fewer difficulties than in Europe, on account of the

uniformity of their alloy, which is almost always silver: the least appearance of copper being used in the alloy gives a suspicion of fraud. As an assay of the gold is rarely permitted at China, it behoves the European trader to be well practised in this way of examination. By carefully attending to the foregoing directions, and by accustoming himself to compare the colours of a good set of touch-needles, having the fineness marked on each, it is presumed he will be able to avoid being imposed upon, either in the touch itself, or by the abuses said to be sometimes committed, of covering the bar or ingot with a thick coat of finer metal than the interior part, or of including masses of base metal within it. A set of needles may be prepared for this use with silver alloy in the series of the Chinese touches; or the European needles may be easily accommodated to the Chinese by the following tables, which reduce English carats into Chinese touches, and Chinese touches into English carats, calculating 100 touch equal to 24 carats.

ENGLISH CARATS TO CHINA TOUCHES.

Carats.	Grs	Touch Parts		Carats.	Grs.	Touch Parts	
24	0	100	0	20	3	86	11
23	3	98	23	20	2	85	10
23	2	97	22	20	1	84	9
23	1	96	21	20	0	83	8
23	0	95	20	19	3	82	7
22	3	94	19	19	2	81	6
22	2	93	18	19	1	80	5
22	1	92	17	19	0	79	4
22	0	91	16	18	3	78	3
21	3	90	15	18	2	77	2
21	2	89	14	18	1	76	1
21	1	88	13	18	0	75	0
21	0	87	12				

CHINA TOUCHES INTO ENGLISH CARATS.

Touch.	Carats.	Grs.	32ds.	Touch.	Carats.	Grs.	32ds.
100	24	0	0	87	20	3	13
99	23	3	1	86	20	2	14
98	23	2	2	85	20	1	15
97	23	1	3	84	20	0	16
96	23	0	4	83	19	3	17
95	22	3	5	82	19	2	18
94	22	2	6	81	19	1	19
93	22	1	7	80	19	0	20
92	22	0	8	79	18	3	21
91	21	3	9	78	18	2	22
90	21	2	10	77	18	1	23
89	21	1	11	76	18	0	24
88	21	0	12	75	18	0	0

The finest gold among the Chinese is 100 touch, which corresponds with our 24 carats, and is called sycee, that is, pure gold without any alloy in it; so that if an ingot or shoe of gold touch 93, then it hath 93 parts of fine gold, and 7 parts of alloy in it. Gold is bought at Canton by so many tales weight of Spanish dollars, 94 touch; and when bought at touch for touch, 10 tales weight of sycee or pure silver are paid for 1 tale weight of sycee or pure gold; therefore 9 tales of silver are to be paid for one of that mixed mass, for 10 times 9 are 90, the sycee gold there is in it when at 90 touch. If it touch 96, then are $9\frac{6}{10}$ of silver to be paid for one of gold; if it touch 88, then $8\frac{8}{10}$ of silver for 1 tale of gold; so that if you separate the last figure of the touch for a decimal, and then multiply this number by the weight or the mass, you will have the weight of the silver to be paid for it.

When gold is sold above or under touch, so much must you add to or subtract from the touch, and then proceed with the touch, so increased or diminished, as by the above directions.

As, if it touch 96, and is to be sold at 4 under touch, then from 96 deduct 4, and the remainder is 92, then are $9\frac{2}{10}$ of silver to be paid for one of gold. If it is 96 touch, and is to be sold 8 above touch, then add 8 to 96, which are 104; then are $10\frac{4}{10}$ of silver to be paid for one of gold.

Gold is bought by 10 tales weight; for upon that quantity they make their price on silver.

The following are some of the various sorts of gold to be bought at Canton:

Twanghan.—This is bar gold, and is good, 94½ touch, but generally sold at 95 touch. The bottom or back of this bar, if good, is very rough.

Soangcatt is very smooth generally, but when true, is very rough, and has a large bumpy branch at the bottom; then you may depend upon 92 touch, otherwise not above 90.

Tungzee.—This is reckoned in shoes 96 touch.

Toozee, or Toujee, is good 92 touch, when it has a little rising at the bottom, like a twig with two branches.

Cheaujee is good 92 touch, and sometimes better. When good, it has a large bump at the bottom.

Seongpon.—This gold is good 93½ touch. The face has little rough knobs in the middle; the back or bottom is pretty smooth.

Seong-yeukz or Song-yeux, being a double chop, is good at 94, and sometimes 95 touch. It is made at Coe-Sue, near Pekin.

Pouzee, or Seongpo, being a double chop, is about 94 touch.

Chuzee.—This gold is generally in bars, and is good 94 touch.

Swarhzy, or Chauzee, is esteemed the best shoe, and has a bump at the bottom, being 93 touch, and sometimes more.

Ongee.—This is accounted 93, but is seldom above 90 or 91 touch.

Too-zee.—This gold is generally something better than 92 touch.

Cutzee is shoe gold, and called songcatt, being the Chinese word for double, or a pair, and cutzee, the name of gold, which joined are vulgarly called songcatt, never more than 90 touch.

Cochin-China bars are 96 touch, with a chop on the inside, and called king's gold, or sowchew, and when scarce, is 97 touch.

It has been found, by numerous experiments, that the gold in China of 93 touch is of the same fineness as English standard gold; if so, their sycee or pure gold is not equal to English 24 carats, and some deduction should be made. In the purchase of gold, if you have a friend resident at Canton, you should consult with him, and get him to touch it for you, as, however careful you may be, the Chinese will deceive you if they can.

HUMAN HAIR

Is frequently brought from China to Europe, to make ornamental head-dresses; and it is in general very dark coloured. The longer and finer it is, the better, and care should be taken that it is perfectly dry when packed. The permanent duty is 3s. per lb. and the war duty 1s. making in all 4s. per lb.

HURSE SKINS

Are the skins of a fish, with a hard rough coat, chiefly used in Europe to cover pocket-cases. They should be chosen large, well-dried, and free from holes. In the September sale, 1806, 6942 hurse-skins were sold for £120.

The permanent duty is 3d. each, and the temporary or war duty 1d. making in the whole 4d. each.

INDIAN INK,

Or China Ink, is an artificial preparation, in small quadrangular cakes, generally marked with Chinese characters, and sometimes handsomely painted: it is said to be prepared from lamp black. It should be chosen to appear glossy; when broken, of a bright black, not brown, and dull; when wetted and rubbed on the nail, it should feel smooth, free from sand and other impurities, and have a perfumed agreeable smell. It should readily become diffused in water by rubbing, and the blackness remain suspended, and not settle to the bottom, unless it stands a considerable time. Since the year 1804 to 1808 the following quantities only have been imported and sold:

1805, September Sale	4095 lbs	sold for	£377
1806 ditto	510	ditto	46

20 cwt. of Indian ink are allowed to a ton.

JET

Is a black bitumen, hard and compact, capable of taking a good polish; by friction it attracts light substances, like amber. It has no smell unless heated, when it acquires one similar to that of asphaltum. This article is produced in China and Ceylon. Its principal use is in making ornaments. It is not an article of trade to Europe.

LAKE

Is a preparation made in China for painters' use. It is brought to Europe in pots, and has somewhat the appearance of raspberry jam, but very bitter to the taste. It should be chosen of a bright crimson colour, clean, and free from grittiness.

LACKERED WARE.

Considerable quantities of this article used formerly to be imported from China by the commanders and officers of the Company's ships, under the denomination of Clearing Stores, a perquisite long since done away. The heavy duties which have been levied on the article, have reduced the importation to a few quadrille-boxes, and other things of a similar nature.

The finest lackered ware comes from Japan, but it is very difficult to be procured; what we commonly see, is manufactured in China. It should be chosen without specks, and of a shining black, that you may see your face in; the figures in raised work, and well executed; the bottoms, sides, and corners sound, and the gold not to be easily rubbed off. Great attention is necessary in packing it, to prevent friction, as the smallest part being rubbed off, greatly lowers its value.

The following are the kinds principally suited for the English market:

Tea-tables, four leaves and loose tops.
Large square and round tea-boards, red, with gold flowers, and chains round the edge.
Black round tea-boards, with open edges, fine.
Black and red tea-boards with gold flowers.
Middling black and red waiters, with flowers, fine.
Black and red common waiters.
Small black and red waiters, or bottle-stands.
Canisters for tea-chests.
Very fine black and gold fans.
Good common red and gold fans.
Middling and small size tea-chests, very fine.
Ditto ..... ditto, good and common.
Large, middling, and small size commodes.
Exceeding fine, rather small, dressing-boxes.
Good common, large, middling, and small ditto.
Patch-boxes, with 12 and 7 pieces.
Ditto, small, with stands.
Double quadrille-boxes, very fine, black and gold.
Single, hook-pattern, ditto.

The following are the quantities of lackered ware imported and sold at the East India Company's sales in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive, together with the sale amount:

Years.	March Sale.	September Sale.	Total.
1804	£6,365	£6,919	£13,284
1805	236	30,336	30,572
1806	163	7,701	7,864
1807	9,535	8,778	18,313
1808	18,916	456	19,372

50 cubical feet are calculated to a ton of lackered ware. The permanent duty is £51 5s. per cent. and the temporary or war duty £17 1s. 8d. making a total of £68 6s. 8d. per cent.

MATS

Of various kinds are manufactured in China, and the following sorts are occasionally brought to England.

Rattan Floor-Mats.—The usual sizes are seven feet long by five feet broad, but the Chinese will make them to any dimensions. They should be chosen of a quite clean rattan, long jointed, having a good gloss, and free from black spots or mildew.

Rush Floor-Mats.—These are to be met with of various sizes and colours, some of them beautifully checkered, but the generality are of a rush colour. They should be chosen clean, of a bright colour, and not broken or tumbled; and care should be taken that they are quite dry when packed, otherwise they will get mouldy, and spoil.

Table-Mats.—These are manufactured both plain and coloured, and always packed up six in a set, of three different sizes; the former, being made from rattans, are to be preferred. They should be chosen of a fine clear bright colour, and free from loose ends; those made of grey dark rattans should be rejected, being of little value. The coloured mats are occasionally brought; they should be chosen well and neatly made, having the ends of the border perfectly secure, of an even colour, and properly dried, otherwise they will mildew, and spoil.

MOTHER OF PEARL ARTICLES.

The Chinese manufacture beads of various kinds, fish-counters, &c. from the mother of pearl shells in a far superior manner to what they can be done in Europe. Three sorts of beads are brought from China; one perfectly round, the second not quite round, and the other cut; they are tied up in bunches; each bunch ought to contain 100 strings, and each string 100 beads, but they are generally somewhat deficient in number. They should be chosen of an equal size, and of a beautiful pearly appearance. The fish counters are cut of various shapes, round, oval, and oblong, and are put up in sets, each containing 140 pieces. They are sometimes brought as an article of trade, but the demand is very limited.

MUSK.

This very strong scented substance is found under the belly of a species of goat, and is brought from China in round thin bladders, generally about the size of a walnut, covered with short brown hairs, well filled, and without any appearance of having been opened. The musk itself is a dry, light, friable substance, of a dark colour, with a purple tinge: its taste is somewhat bitter, and its smell too strong to be agreeable in any quantity. It is met with in grains, which feel unctuous, smooth, and soft, and are easily crumbled between the fingers. This drug should be chosen of a very strong scent, in the dry and sound natural bags of the animal, not in the factitious ones made of skins sewed together, which may be distinguished by the closeness and length of the hair on the latter kind of bags, these factitious ones having more and longer hair than the genuine, and that generally of a paler colour. A small quantity of musk macerated for a few days in rectified spirits of wine, imparts a deep colour, and a strong impregnation to the spirit. This tincture of itself discovers but little smell; but on dilution it manifests the full fragrance of the musk; a drop or two communicating to a quart of wine or watery liquors a rich musky scent. The quantity of liquor which may thus be flavoured by a certain known proportion of musk, appears to be the best criterion of the genuineness and goodness of this commodity.

Few drugs are more liable to sophistication than musk. It is adulterated on the spot with the animal's blood, which acquires so strong a scent after drying among the musk, that it may pass alone on the unsuspicious for real musk. This fraud may be discovered by the largeness of the lumps or clots, as the blood dries to a harder and firmer substance than the genuine musk. It is sometimes mixed with a dark

coloured friable earth; this appears to the touch of a more crumbly texture, and harder as well as heavier than genuine musk; but this deception is best discovered by burning a small quantity, in which case musk adulterated in this manner leaves a large and heavy remainder; the genuine, or even that mixed with blood, either evaporates, or leaves only a few white ashes. The best musk, when chewed, and rubbed with a knife on paper, looks bright, yellowish, smooth, and free from grittiness. That which appears to have been opened, or that feels very heavy and hard, should be rejected.

The following is an account of the quantities imported and sold at the East India sales in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive; together with the sale amount, and average price per ounce:

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.		Average per oz.		
	oz.	£	oz.	£	oz.	£	£	s.	d.
1804	—	—	—	—	—	—	—		
1805	—	—	485	1024	485	1024	2	2	3
1806	261	728	4136	5786	4397	6514	1	9	7
1807	596	467	4199	2648	4795	3115	0	15	7
1808	1465	1596	4744	4883	6209	6479	1	0	10

20 cwt. of musk are allowed to a ton. By the regulations of the East India Company, musk is not permitted to be brought in the China ships, but may be imported in all others. The permanent duty on musk is 3s. and the war duty 1s. making in the whole 4s. per ounce.

MUSK-SEED

Are flat, kidney-shaped, striated seeds, about the size of a large pin's head, of a greyish or brownish colour on the outside, and white within, produced by a shrubby plant, a native of India and China. These seeds have a fragrant smell, approaching to that of musk, and a slight aromatic bitterish taste. Chuse such as appear new, plump, dry, and well-scented, rejecting those which are black and musty.

16 cwt. of musk-seed are allowed to a ton. This commodity not being particularly specified, the duty is ad valorem, viz. permanent duty £37½ per cent. and war duty £12½ per cent.

NANKEENS.

There are two kinds of nankeen cloth brought from China, the broad and the narrow: the former is what is commonly called the Company's nankeen, and is the sort best suited to the home consumption; the finer they are, the more they are esteemed: the narrow are comparatively of small value.

The following is the sale amount of nankeens imported on account of the East India Company and the private trade, in the years 1803 to 1810 inclusive:

Years.	Company's.	Private.	Total.
1803	£43,828	£38,683	£82,511
1804	58,223	29,996	88,219
1805	65,240	21,489	86,729
1806	49,749	51,283	101,032
1807	none.	£14,037	£14,037
1808	£68,795	none.	68,795
1809	64,677	16,814	81,491
1810	none.	none.	none.

In the latter years the nankeens sold are in many cases blended with the piece-goods, so that it is difficult to ascertain the amount sold. The average quantity sold on account of the Company, in the years 1803 to 1806 inclusive, was about 170,000 pieces per annum. In the five years, 1788 to 1792 inclusive, the average was only 32,320 pieces per annum.

The French used to import large quantities of nankeens from China. In 1791 there were sold at L'Orient 224,720 pieces of coloured, and 14,600 pieces of white, making in the whole 239,320 pieces.

ONYX.

The onyx, which in Greek signifies a nail, is so called from its likeness to the colour of the nail of a man's hand. It is seldom transparent, and generally consists of a mixture of black and white colours, which are quite distinct from each other. The horny colour is often marked with whitish veins or zones, somewhat resembling an eye. The kinds of onyx are distinguished either from the places where they are found, or from their different colours. The Arabian onyx is black with white zones, and a variety of other colours. When the white zone is carving, any figure is placed at the top, and the black serves for a ground; it is then called a cameo by the jewellers, as if it was a distinct gem; when it is white, it is called a chalcedony. Some are quite black, others are tinged with yellow, whitish, blueish, and horn colours, mixed in an agreeable manner. They have all zones or streaks, which distinguish one colour from another. The onyx is sometimes found of considerable size, and is much esteemed in some of the eastern countries, more particularly in China.

OPAL.

This gem is commonly found in detached pieces, in an envelope of a different kind of stone, from the size of a pin's head to that of a walnut. Beautiful opals of this last size are extremely rare, so that it is difficult to find an opal sufficiently large and perfect to be completely possessed of all its beauties. This renders it difficult to determine its value: it is, however, considered that a beautiful oriental opal is worth double the price of a sapphire of the same size. There are three principal species. The opal of Nonnius. This appears olive-coloured by reflection, but when held between the eye and the light, is found to be transparent, and of a beautiful ruby colour. The white opal has its ground of a white glass-like complexion, from whence green, yellow, blueish, and purple rays are thrown out; but when held against the light, appears of a reddish, or rather flame colour. The blueish and semi-transparent opal is less valuable than the others, on account of its being more easily imitated by art.

Opals are to be met with in several parts of India, and at Palembang on Sumatra; but great caution is requisite in purchasing, as the natives are very expert in imitating them.

OSTRICH FEATHERS.

The feathers of the ostrich are divided into loose silky filaments. The long white plumes of the tail and wings have always been highly esteemed. The feathers most admired are those which are plucked from the animal while alive, and are known by this property, that the quill contains a moist substance, whilst those which are pulled after death, are dry, light, and liable to worms.

The short feathers are most esteemed for female dresses. Those from the Cape of Good Hope are not considered so good as those from Barbary; they are of a better colour, but not so perfect in the flue or feather, and run thin and ugly. The best are of a buffish tinge; the grey and coloured are used for dying. The stalks of the large feathers are heavy, and the edges of the feather broken and hairy; these are of little value, and should be rejected.

Paddy-bird feathers somewhat resemble those of the ostrich, but are much finer; they are of a cream colour, and should be chosen with their tops not broken, the sides or flue perfect, and the stem not bent; the larger they are, the more esteemed.

The permanent duty on dressed ostrich feathers is £1 15s. per lb. and the war duty 11s. 8d. per lb. On undressed feathers the permanent duty is 10s. and the war duty 3s. 4d. per lb.

QUICKSILVER,

Or mercury, is sometimes found in the earth in a fluid form, and is then called virgin mercury. The principal mines are in Hungary and Spain. A quantity is also produced at China, from whence it was formerly imported into Europe; but of late years it has been sent from Europe to China.

The best quicksilver is of a shining silver colour, very fluid, appearing to the eye like melted lead, or tin. The following are the best modes of ascertaining its goodness:—Put a little into a silver spoon over a gentle fire; if it is good, it will evaporate without leaving any impurity behind; but if bad and drossy, the spoon will remain black. When strained through a piece of leather, if good, it will leave no impurities behind, and be white, running clear and beautiful. That which is of a livid colour, and does not readily separate into globules, or which has the appearance of a pellicle on its surface, from dust or greasiness, after being strained through leather, should be rejected.

20 cwt. of quicksilver are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is 1s. per lb. and the temporary or war duty 4d. making in the whole, 1s. 4d. per lb.

RHUBARB

Is an oblong tapering root, cultivated in China, likewise in the Russian dominions in Tartary: the latter is called Turkey rhubarb, because it formerly came to us from Turkey, but may more properly be called Russian, or Tartarian rhubarb. That imported from China is in pieces of 4, 5, or 6 inches in length, and 3 or 4 in diameter at the top; it is of a smooth even surface, moderately heavy, but not hard; externally of a yellow colour, with an admixture of brown; internally variegated with lively reddish streaks, forming a marbled appearance when cut. The yellow is the ground colour, and the red is disposed in short irregular veins, much in the manner of nutmegs. The Chinese are very careful in their method of drying it. They take up the root only in winter, or early in the spring, before the leaves begin to appear; they cut it into such pieces as they think proper, and lay it on a table in a shady place, turning it once or twice a day for two or three days; after this they string the pieces on a cord, at a distance from each other, and hang them up in a shady place, that they may dry leisurely. It is by this management the rhubarb is rendered so firm and solid as we find it; for if it were hung up to dry at once in a warm airy place, it would become light and spongy. They say also, that if the root be taken up in the summer, it is not only light and of little value, but that it has nothing of the reddish marbling, which is one of the great characters of its goodness. Sometimes the root is cut down the middle, and afterwards divided into pieces of 4 or 5 inches in length, which appear flat, and dry better than the round. For some time past flat rhubarb has sold considerably better than round of the same goodness.

Rhubarb is not so often adulterated as damaged. To be good, it should be particularly dry and sound; if it be wet or rotten, it is worthless. By long keeping, it frequently grows mouldy and worm-eaten, and sometimes the worm-holes are filled with mixtures, and the outside of the damaged pieces coloured with the powder of fine rhubarb, or some cheaper materials. The marks of the goodness of rhubarb are, the liveliness of its colour when cut; its being firm and solid, but not flinty or hard; its being easily pulverable, and appearing, when powdered, of a fine bright yellow colour; its imparting to the spittle, on being chewed, a deep saffron tinge; its not proving slimy or mucilaginous in the mouth; its taste is subacrid, bitterish, and somewhat styptic, and its smell slightly aromatic. Those pieces which appear green or black, when broken through the middle, should be rejected.

Rhubarb is cultivated in England and Scotland, and the best specimens, when sound, well-dried, and properly dressed, are said to be not inferior to what comes from Russia. It certainly deserves some

encouragement, especially if we consider the difficulty there is in procuring this article from Russia, the inferiority of the Chinese, and the adulterations that are often practised to render the foreign drug fair to the eye; but as those are more sightly to the eye than the British, they are more marketable. There remains only to be convinced that British rhubarb is equal to the foreign, or if it be a little inferior, that inferiority is owing merely to a want of skill in curing it, which skill will soon be attained by experience.

The following are the quantities imported and sold at the East India sales in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive, together with the sale value, and the average price per pound:

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale		Total.		Average per lb.		
	lb.	£.	lb.	£.	lb.	£.	£	s.	d.
1804	—	—	67525	6671	67525	6671	0	1	11
1805	43927	2127	31247	2313	75174	4440	0	1	2
1806	14122	600	1338	59	15460	659	0	0	10
1807	—	—	3812	119	3812	119	0	0	8
1808	1014	31	—	—	1014	31	0	0	7

8 cwt. of rhubarb are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is 1s. 3d. per lb. and the temporary or war duty 5d. making in the whole 1s. 8d. per lb.

SEA-WEED.

Some species of sea-weed are much esteemed in China. The fucus saccharinus is of considerable breadth as well as length; when cleansed from sand, salt, and other impurities, and dried, it is used on several occasions; it is sometimes eaten boiled, and at other times raw, when it is scraped till it is white, and cut into small slips about the breadth of a nail, and 2 inches long. Some kinds of greenish and brownish sea-weed, which are naturally tough, are well washed, cleansed from sand and other impurities, then cut into small pieces, formed into little cakes, and eaten without any other preparation.

SHELLS.

The most beautiful shells we are acquainted with, come from the East Indies, China, and the Red Sea. Amboyna supplies the most beautiful specimens of the cabbage-shell, the ducal mantle, a great variety of beautiful muscles, wreathed shells, trumpet shells, and that called the Æthiopian crown in its greatest perfection. The dolia are also found there in great beauty. Many elegant snails and screw-shells are also brought from thence, and finally the scrapion and spider shells. The Maldive and Philippine Islands, Bengal, and the Malabar Coast abound with the most elegant of all the species of snails, and furnish many other kinds of shells in great abundance and perfection. China abounds in the finest specimens of porcelain shells, and has also a great variety of beautiful snails. Japan furnishes the thicker and larger bivalves. The east coast of Africa is very rich in shells; here are found a great variety of the large porcelains, many of them of great beauty, and all the species of nautilus, many of which are very beautiful. The Red Sea is, beyond all other parts of the world, abundant in shells; scarce any kind is wanting there; but what we principally have from thence are the purpures, porcelain, and sea-eggs.

In collecting shells it is most advisable, whenever it can be done, to get those which have in them the living animals, because the shells are then obtained in their natural beauty, and the full glow of their colours; for when they have been much exposed to the sun, their colours fade, and they are liable to other accidents that injure them. To kill the fish, it is recommended to give them a quick dip in boiling water; and when they are cooled, to lay them in cold water till they are cleaned.

Shells are subject to several imperfections, some of which are natural, and others accidental; the

natural defects are the effect of age, or sickness in the fish. The greatest mischief happens to shells by the fish dying in them. The curious pretend to be always able to distinguish a shell taken up with the fish alive, from one found on the shores; they call the first a living, the second a dead shell; and say that the colours are always much fainter in the dead shells. When the shells have laid long dead on the shores, they are subject to many injuries, of which the being eaten by sea-worms is not the least; age renders the finest shells livid or dead in their colours. Besides the imperfections arising from age and sickness in the fish, shells are subject to other deformities, such as morbid cavities, or protuberances in parts where there should be none. When the shell is valuable, these faults may be hid, and much added to the beauty of the specimen, without at all injuring it as an object of natural history. A shell that has a smooth surface, and a natural dull polish, need only to be rubbed with the hand, or with a piece of chamois leather, with some fine rotten-stone, and it will become of a perfectly bright and fine polish.

SILKS, WROUGHT.

China wrought silks are of numerous sorts, cheap and good. In chusing them, care should be taken that they are received dry, or else they will mildew and spoil, as they are sold by weight, and are often damped to make them heavier. The fineness and price are generally agreed upon by muster. They should not have too much gum or congee in them, which increases their weight, and makes the silk lie close, whereby the fineness of it is not so well seen, and it always mildews them. A fine limber silk, clear of knots, knobs, and uneven threads, fine and glossy on the back, as well as on the right side, is the best. The pieces should be unrolled and measured, as they will sometimes want a yard or two in length, and be of two or three different colours.

The following are some of the various kinds which were formerly brought from China to England:

Taffaties, plain colours, crimson and pink.
Ditto ....flowered in the loom, same colours.
Ditto.....ditto, with satin flower and stripe.
Ditto.....embroidered, white and coloured.
Ditto.....painted satin stripes and flowers.
Ditto.....painted flowers, one pattern only.
Lutestring, plain colour as above, to English pattern.
Ditto.....painted satin stripes and flowers.
Paunches, plain blues, pinks, and whites.
Ditto .....4 colours with crimson.
Ditto .....painted landscape window blinds, with flowers, any pattern.
Ditto .....plain, spotted, or figured in the loom.
Peelongs ..plain light blues, pinks, and whites.
Ditto .....spotted, or figured with crimson.
Ditto .....3 colours, without ditto.

The following are the dimensions and weights of China silks:

	Long.	Broad.	Long.	Tales.
Taffaties	15 yds.	2 cov. 2 punts	38 cov.	28
Gorgoroons	18	2	45	42
Ditto	15	2	38	36
Goshees	15	2	38	32
Ditto	18	2	45	36
Padusoys	15	2	38	42
Padusoys	18 yds.	2 cov. 2 punts	45 cov.	49
Poisees	18	2	45	42
Ditto, satins	18	2	45	42
Bed Damasks	18	2	45	42
Handkerchiefs	¾ yd. wide		42	27
Ditto	¾ ditto		44	27

The tonnage of different sorts of silks is calculated as follows:

Taffaties of all sorts 38 covids long, equal to 15 yards, 2 covids, 2 punts broad, is equal to ¾ yard, of which 609 pieces make a ton. Of gorgoroons, padusoys, poisees of all sorts, goshees, and bed damasks, 18 yards long, and 2 covids broad, equal to ¾ of a yard; of these 502 pieces make a ton.

Handkerchiefs 40 covids long and 2 broad, equal to ¾ of a yard; of these, 666 pieces make a ton.

Ditto, 44 ditto, equal to 17 $\frac{1}{2}$ yards, and 2 covids 2 punts broad, equal to ¾ of a yard; of these 454 pieces make a ton.

SILK, RAW.

China may be said to be the country of silk, of which it seems to be an inexhaustible source. It furnishes large quantities to the neighbouring nations and to Europe, and also clothing for the greater part of the inhabitants; there are very few, except the lowest orders, but what are clad in silk garments.

The silk produced in China is of various qualities; the best is from Nankin. What is usually imported, is of excellent staple, and answers many purposes for which Italian silks are used. In purchasing China raw-silk, considerable care is requisite in examining it, and the following should be particularly attended to.

The colour should be a beautiful pure white, not the cream-coloured white, and be free from any discoloured threads; the threads are rather uneven compared with the Italian silks. If it is rough to the touch, it is a bad sign, and should be rejected. The Chinese often mix their silk with a good deal of ordinary in the middle of the skeins; so that great pains must be taken in the opening and examination, and regard must be had to the double bands they tie the bundles up with; these bands should not exceed a tale weight. Particular regard must be had that the silk is perfectly dry, otherwise there will be a considerable deficiency in weight, independent of its becoming discoloured and damaged on the voyage. The Chinese are apt to sell silk which has been previously kept in a damp place, with a view of increasing its weight. That which is gouty and uneven, or that appears stiffened with gum, should be rejected.

The quantities of China raw-silk imported by the East India Company from 1773 to 1802 inclusive, are already stated under the head of Bengal raw-silk, in page 256; since that period, the following are the quantities imported and sold at their sales, together with the sale amount.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.	
	lbs.	£	lbs.	£	lbs.	£
1803	50,617	56,683	39,543	43,345	90,160	100,028
1804	10,239	11,884	75,073	88,848	85,312	100,732
1805	14,196	18,387	28,760	36,170	42,956	54,557
1806	40,622	63,234	18,263	29,352	58,885	92,586
1807	11,726	18,350	27,035	32,794	38,761	41,144
1808	47,902	70,153	37,848	53,855	85,750	124,008
1809	58,736	101,209	51,624	85,336	110,360	186,605
1810	48,635	79,351	18,817	35,488	67,452	114,839
1811	33,461	55,279	39,938	60,802	73,399	116,081

The East India Company restrict their commanders and officers from trading in China raw-silks. There is reason to believe that the profit arising to them from this article of their exclusive trade, does not average 20 per cent. after the payment of the freight and demurrage, the charges estimated at 5 per cent. and the customs thereon.

The permanent duty on China silk is 4s. 3d. per lb. and the temporary or war duty 1s. 5d. per lb.

SOY

Is prepared in China and Japan, from a particular species of bean, in the following manner:—the beans are boiled till they become rather soft, to which an equal quantity of wheat or barley is added, and set in a warm place to ferment; the same quantity of salt is then put to the mixture, and three parts as much water added to it. After being properly mixed, it is left to stand, well covered, for two or three months; it is then pressed, and strained off, and kept in wooden vessels. Some places produce better soy

than others, but exclusively of that, it grows better and clearer through age; its colour is invariably brown. Japan soy is esteemed superior to the Chinese, and is an article of trade from thence to Batavia. The Dutch, in order to preserve the best sort, and prevent its fermenting, boil it up, and afterwards draw it off into bottles, which are then well corked and sealed.

Soy should be chosen of a good flavour, not too salt or too sweet, of a good thick consistence, of a dark brown colour and clear; when shaken in a glass, it should leave a coat on the surface, of a bright yellowish brown colour: if it does not, it is an inferior kind, and should be rejected.

The following are the quantities imported and sold at the East India sales, in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive, together with the sale amount and average price per gallon.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.		Aver. per Gall.
	Gallons.	£	Gallons.	£	Gallons.	£	£ s. d.
1804	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1805	443	317	1125	642	1568	959	0 12 5
1806	—	—	807	477	807	477	0 11 10
1807	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1808	—	—	2148	2022	2148	2022	0 18 10

252 gallons of soy are allowed to a ton.

SUGAR-CANDY

Is an article of trade from China to the British settlements, and should be chosen white, dry, clean, and transparent. It is generally packed up in tubs, each containing a pecul. The best is from Chinchew, and is as white and clear as crystal. Powder sugar is also an article of trade from China to India.

TOYS.

The Chinese are very expert in preparing clay images of various sorts, and pieces of inferior mechanism, as toys, which are occasionally imported into Europe as presents, but never as articles of trade. They are carried in considerable quantities to India.

TEA.

The dried leaves of the tea-plant, which grows in China and Japan, are a commodity which about a hundred and fifty years ago was scarce known as an article of trade; it is now in common use throughout the British dominions, and in most parts of Europe and America.

The Chinese all agree that there is but one sort or species of the tea-tree, and that the differences in tea arise from the mode of curing, and the difference of seasons when gathered. The tea-tree is an evergreen, and grows to the height of five or six feet; the leaves, when full grown, are about an inch and a half long, narrow, indented, and tapering to a point like those of the sweet briar, of a dark green colour, glossy, and of a firm texture, veined on the under side, flattish, and channelled above; the root is like that of the peach-tree, and its flowers resemble those of the white wild rose, and are followed by a pod about the size of a filbert, containing two or three grains of seed, which are wrinkled, and very unpleasant to the palate. The stem spreads into many irregular branches, inclining to an ash colour, but reddish towards the ends; the wood is hard, of a whitish green colour, and the bark is of a greenish colour, with a bitter, nauseous, and astringent taste. The leaves are not fit for being plucked till the shrub is three years old; in seven years it rises to about six feet; it is then cut down to the stem, and this produces a new crop

of fresh shoots the following year, every one of which bears nearly as many leaves as a whole shrub. Sometimes the plants are not cut down till they are ten years old. The trees are not manured, but the ground is kept clean, and free from weeds. The tea is not always gathered by the single leaf, but often by sprigs, and in general by men, though women and children gather it. It is gathered from morning till night, when the dew is on the leaves as well as when it is off.

Teas are generally in parcels, denominated chops by the Chinese, consisting of from 100 to 1000 chests each, bearing the name of the grower, or place where grown; and they are, generally speaking, found to be of an equal quality throughout, although, from a variety of seasons, or some other cause, it is found fresher and better in one year than another.

Teas are divided into black and green. The former are again divided as follow:

BLACK TEAS.

I. Bohea, or Voo-yee, the name of the country, is in the province of Fokien, and is very hilly; not only the hills are planted with tea trees, but the vallies also: the former are reckoned to grow the best tea. On them grow Congou, Pekoe, and Souchong; in the vallies or flat parts of the country, Bohea. There are four or five gatherings of Bohea tea in a year, according to the demand there is for it, but three, or at most, four gatherings are reckoned proper; the others only hurt the next year's crop. Of Souchong there can be but one gathering, which is of the first and youngest leaves; all others make inferior tea.

The first gathering is called tow-tchune, and is from about the middle of April to the end of May, and the leaves are reckoned fat and oily. The second gathering is called eurl, or gee-tchune, and is from about the middle of June to the middle of July; these leaves are less fat, or oily. The third gathering is called san-tchune, and is from the beginning of August to the end of September; these leaves are scarcely at all fat or oily, yet they look young.

The following is the method of curing Bohea:

When the leaves are gathered, they are put into large flat baskets to dry, and these are put upon shelves or planks in the air or wind, or in the sun, if not too intense, from morning until noon, at which time the leaves begin to throw out a smell; then they are tatched. This is done by throwing each time about half a catty of leaves into the tatche, which is a flat pan of cast iron, and stirring them quick with the hand twice, the tatche being very hot; they are then taken out, and again put into the large flat baskets, and rubbed by men's hands to roll them, after which they are tatched in larger quantities, and over a slower fire, and then put into baskets over a charcoal fire, as it is practised on some occasions in Canton. When the tea is fired enough, which a person of skill directs, it is spread on a table, and picked or separated from the too large leaves, and those that are unrolled, yellow, broken, or bad.

Bohea tea is never imported by individuals; but it forms about one sixth of the whole of the Company's imports, being on an average of ten years, from 1791 to 1800, 3,310,135 lbs. per annum. Being a common tea, it is not so carefully examined as the better sorts.* The best is of a small blackish leaf, and dusty, to the smell somewhat resembling burnt hay; of a rough and brackish taste, and it should be crisp. Reject those which are yellow, or though good in appearance, smell faint and disagreeable.

The chops or parcels of Bohea teas have no names or distinguishing characters.

* It is understood the Company have recently sent out orders to their supra-cargoes at China, that in future Bohea tea should not form a part of their investments.

II. Congou, or Cong-foo, great or much care, or trouble in the making, or gathering the leaves. This tea is tatched twice, though some say both it and Souchong are not tatched, but only fired two or three times: the latter is most probable, and yet the former may be true; for as tatching seems to give the

green colour to the leaves, so we may observe something of that greenness in the leaves of Congou and Souchong teas. It is further stated that the leaves of Souchong, Congou, Hyson, and fine Singlo teas are beat with flat sticks or bamboos, after they have been withered by the sun or air, and have acquired toughness enough to keep them from breaking, to force out of them a raw or harsh smell.

The trade in London make three sorts of Congou teas, viz. Congou, Campoi Congou, and Ankay Congou. The following are directions for chusing them:

Congou is a superior kind of Bohea, larger leaf, and less dusty. It should be chosen of a fresh smell, the taste less strong than that of Bohea, to feel crisp, and be easily crumbled: those Congous which run broken and dirty, of a heated smell, and faint unpleasant taste, should be rejected. This tea does not yield so high a colour on infusion as Bohea; the leaves are sometimes of a greyish hue, and often black.

Campoi Congou is a superior kind of Congou, from which it varies very little in appearance, taste, or smell, except it is fresher and of a cleaner flavour, more resembling Souchong.

Ankay, so called from the country that produces it, which is about twenty-four days' journey from Canton, is the tea-tree from the Bohea country propagated at Ankay. When gathered, the leaves are put into flat baskets to dry like the Bohea; they are then tatched, and afterwards rubbed with hands and feet to roll them, then put in the sun to dry. If this tea is intended for Europeans, it is packed in large baskets, and those are heated by a charcoal fire in a hot-house, as it is often practised in Canton. The worst sort of Ankay is not tatched, but Ankay Congou, as it is called, is cured with care; this sort is generally packed in small chests; there is also Ankay Pekoe, but the smell of all these teas are much inferior to those of the Bohea country; however, Ankay Congou of the first sort is generally dearer at Canton than Bohea. This tea is often mixed with the leaves of other trees, but there are only two or three trees whose leaves will answer the purpose; and they may be known when opened by hot water, as they are not indented as tea leaves are; otherwise, from their resemblance, it is difficult to distinguish them.

This tea is sometimes taken by the commanders and officers in exchange for such part of their investments as cannot be disposed of by a direct sale, and has at Canton a very high flavour; but it flies off in the course of the voyage. The leaf is small and wiry, of a burnt smell. Not being much esteemed in London, it should be rejected if it possibly can, and any other tea taken instead of it.

Congou teas form about one half of the Company's sales, being, on an average of ten years, 1791 to 1800, 9,564,202 lbs. per annum. The common price at Canton is about 28 tales per pecul.

The following are a few of the numerous chops of Congou teas brought to the Canton market, with the number of chests usually contained in a chop, and a description of their quality, according to the technical terms of the trade:

	Chests.	
Wa Chunn	1139	middling, blackish leaf.
Yock Chunn....	1167	ditto, ditto.
Cheem Chunn..	1206	ditto, ditto.
Un Chunn	1194	but middling, largish leaf.
Quong Tay.....	600	ditto, small blackish leaf.
Quong Fat	1000	ditto, rather blackish leaf.
Quong Tack....	1000	ditto, small blackish leaf.
Ee Kee	1000	but middling clean.
Ee Hop.....	1000	ditto, blackish leaf.
Eee Hing.....	1000	but middling.
Eee Mee	1000	ditto.
Hock Hung	500	mid. rather blackish leaf.
Heeh Kee	600	ditto, clean blackish leaf.
Ee Chunn	1005	ditto, strong.
Yoon Chunn....	1009	ditto, blackish leaf.
King Woe	1004	ditto, largish leaf.
Ka Kee.....	1010	rather strong, blackish leaf.
Quong Low	1000	flavour inclining to Pekoe.
Eee Mow	1000	rather blackish leaf.
Eee Yeck	950	ditto, ditto.
Kee Chunn.....	700	strong blackish leaf.
Sing Kee	698	middling, blackish leaf.

III. Souchong, or Se-ow-chong, small good thing, is made from the leaves of trees three years old, and where the soil is very good, of older leaves; when not so good, Congou is made. Of true Souchong tea very little is produced; the value of it on the spot is 1½ to 2 tales per catty. What is sold to Europeans for Souchong, is only the first sort of Congou; and the Congou they buy, is only the first sort of Bohea. Upon a hill planted with tea-trees, one only may produce leaves good enough to be called Souchong, and of these only the best and youngest are taken; the others make Congous of the several kinds, and Bohea.

The trade in London distinguish the following species of Souchong.

Souchong, or what is commonly called so. This tea should be chosen crisp and dry, of a pleasant fragrant smell, and as free from dust as possible. When tried in water, the more reddish brown leaves, the better, and the water of a lightish brown; it is sometimes of a high colour, and sometimes pale; but the tea, if good in other respects, should not be rejected, though the colour is not very high. Such as are broken, dusty, and foul, or that smell old and musty, should be avoided.

Caper Souchong.—This tea takes its name from being rolled up somewhat resembling a caper. The leaves of this should be chosen of a fine black gloss, heavy, of a fresh good smell, taste full flavoured and high. On being infused in water, it tinges it of a bright reddish brown colour. Reject that which is dusty and broken, and of a faint unpleasant smell. This tea is not imported by the Company, and only in small quantities by the commanders and officers.

Padre Souchong, or Pow-chong.—This is a very superior kind of Souchong, having a finer taste, smell, and flavour; the leaves are larger and of a yellowish hue, not so strongly twisted; it is packed in papers, each containing about a quarter of a pound. This tea is scarce, and difficult to be procured genuine; it costs a dollar per catty at Canton, and is seldom imported except as presents, as it is not considered to keep so well as the other kinds of Souchong. That which is small and broken, and that smells musty or disagreeable, should be rejected.

Pekoe, or Pé-how, white first leaf, is made from the leaves of trees three years old, and from the tenderest of them, gathered just after they have been in bloom, when the small leaves that grow between the two first that have appeared, and which altogether make a sprig, are downy and white, and resemble young hair, or down. This tea is esteemed superior to Souchong. The quantity imported into England is inconsiderable. It is purchased at Canton by the Danes and Swedes for the Russia market, and has sometimes sold as high as 80 tales per pecul; but in consequence of their trade being put a stop to, it is to be bought at from 40 to 50 tales per pecul. This tea should be chosen with small white leaves, or flowers at the ends of the leaves; the more flower it has, the more it is esteemed. It has a peculiar flavour, and a smell somewhat resembling new hay; it greatly improves Souchong on being mixed with it: that which is old, small, broken, and with little flavour, should be rejected.

The following are a few of the chops of Souchong teas brought to the Canton market, with the number of chests usually contained in a chop, and a description of their quality, according to the technical terms of the trade:

	Chests.		Chests.
Wapoo Lan Hung	310 middling.	Woe Kee	434 middling.
Chu Kee	210 but middling.	Mien Kee	553 ditto.
Quong Tay	300 ditto.	Ly Kee	400 good middling.
Ying Tay	220 good middling.	Quong Woe	300 middling.
Lap Tay	288 fresh and good.	Chie Kee	204 good middling.
Chum Fue	352 middling.	Une Mee	202 ditto.
Ee Kee	405 ditto.	Precqua Woeka	370 but middling.

GREEN TEAS

Are cured in the following manner. When the leaves are gathered, they are directly tatched, and then very much rubbed by men's hands to roll them, after which they are spread to divide them, for the leaves in rolling are apt to stick together; they are then tatched very dry, and afterwards spread on tables to be picked: this is done by girls or women, who, according to their skill, can pick from one to four catties each day. Then they are tatched again, and afterwards tossed in flat baskets, to clear them from dust; they are then again spread upon tables, and picked, and then tatched for a fourth time, and laid in parcels, which parcels are again tatched by ten catties at a time, and when done, put hot into baskets for the purpose, where they are kept till it suits the owner to pack them in chests or tubs; before which the tea is again tatched, and then put hot into the chests or tubs, and pressed into them by the hand. When the tea is hot, it does not break, which it is apt to do when it is cold. Singlo tea being more dusty than Hyson tea, is twice tossed in baskets; Hyson only once. It appears that it is necessary to tatch these teas whenever they contract any moisture; so that if the seller is obliged to keep his tea any time, especially in damp weather, he must tatch it to give it a crispness, before he can sell it.

It is a common opinion that the verdure on green teas is occasioned by their being dried on copper; but it does not appear, from experiments that have been made, that there is any foundation for it.

The trade in London divide green teas into the following sorts:

Singlo.—There are two gatherings of Singlo tea, the first in April and May, the second in June; each gathering is divided into three or more sorts. The leaves of the first are large, fine, flat, and clean; of this sort there may be collected from a pecul, from 40 to 55 catties, usually 45; the second sort is picked next, and what then remains, is the third or worst sort.

Singlo tea is seldom imported by individuals. It is of a flattish leaf. It should be chosen of a fresh strong flavour; it is of a light green colour when chewed, and on infusion, should yield a pale amber colour, and none of the leaves turn brown or dark coloured: it should feel crisp and brittle. That which is yellow, of a large loose leaf, and dusty, should be rejected.

Twankay, or Tunkey, is a superior kind of Singlo. It grows near the Hyson country, and is oftener tatched and picked than the common Singlo. Twankay, like other Singlo tea, is made into two or three sorts; the best is sometimes sold for Hyson of an inferior growth. It should be chosen with the leaves well twisted or curled; it ought also to have a burnt smell, not too strong, but pleasant, and on infusion, yield a paler colour than Singlo. That which is yellow, and the smell inclining to that of sulphur, should be rejected.

This tea is only imported by the Company, and there are no particular chops of a superior kind.

Hyson Skin, or Bloom Tea, has its name from being compared to the skin or peel of the Hyson tea, a sort of cover to it, consequently not so good. It consists of the largest, unhandsome, bad coloured, and uncurled leaves that are picked out from the Hyson tea.

Hyson Skin is a superior kind of green tea, of a round, knobby, brightish leaf; but great part of what is imported, is of an inferior quality, of a yellowish open leaf, somewhat resembling Singlo, and in consequence varies greatly in price. It should be chosen of a fresh smell, on infusion yield a pale yellowish green colour, and of a delicate taste, though somewhat of a burnt flavour: the more it approaches to Hyson, the more it is esteemed.

The price of Hyson Skin at Canton varies from 25 to 30 tales per pecul.

Superior Hyson Skin.—This is a distinction made in the tea-trade to divide the common Hyson Skin and the Hyson. This is said to be Hyson tea a year or more old, which, after undergoing the process

of tatching repeatedly, is brought to market a second time; its appearance is much darker than Hyson, with less bloom on it. Its smell is somewhat musty, and the taste has more of that brassy flavour peculiar to green teas, without any of the delicate aromatic taste of good Hyson; on infusion, the water is darker coloured, and with less fragrance than Hyson.

Hyson, or He-tchune, the name of the first crop of this tea. There are two gatherings of it, and each gathering is distinguished into two or more sorts; but as great care is taken in gathering it, 60 catties may be chosen from a pecul of it, when only 45 catties can be chosen from Singlo.

Hyson tea should be chosen of a full sized grain, of a fine blooming appearance, very dry, and so crisp, that with a slight pressure it will crumble to dust: when infused in water, the leaf should open clear and smooth, without being broken, or appearing shrivelled, (which is one of the indications of old tea). It should give the water a light green tinge; the water should also have an aromatic smell, with a strong pungent taste. Those leaves which appear of a dead yellowish green, or give the water a similar tinge, or rather a brownish hue, should be rejected; likewise that which appears highly glazed, which occasions it to yield a darker colour to water.

The price of Hyson tea at Canton varies from 48 to 60 tales per pecul.

Gunpowder is a superior kind of Hyson. This tea should be chosen round, resembling small shot, with a beautiful bloom upon it, which will not bear the breath; it should appear of a greenish hue, and a fragrant pungent taste. The chest of gunpowder, which is of the same dimensions of that of Hyson, should weigh from 75 to 80 catties; and the heavier it weighs, the better the tea is considered. Gunpowder tea is sometimes adulterated, an inferior kind of tea is dyed and glazed, to bear the appearance of the finest tea, but which, on infusion, is very inferior in every respect. This should be carefully avoided, likewise that of which the leaf is open and loose, the face of a darker hue or bloom, and that has a brassy unpleasant taste.

The price of Gunpowder tea at Canton is about 75 tales per pecul; the sale price from 7s. to 8s. per lb. the duty payable by the purchaser; the retail price to the consumer is from 15s. to 18s. per lb.

Chulan Hysos is a peculiar kind of Hyson-leaf, having the berries of a small plant, called by the Chinese Chulan, mixed with it, which gives it the cowslip flavour, on which account it is sometimes called cowslip tea. It should be chosen of a yellowish leaf, a fragrant and perfumed smell, and when infused in water, of a strong cowslip flavour. This tea is seldom imported but as presents.

Ball Tea is so called from the form into which it is made, being round, and nearly the size of a nutmeg, composed of the leaves of black tea, generally of the best kind, gummed together. It is sometimes brought to England as presents.

Bruish Tea—so called from the leaves being twisted into small cords, like packthread, about 1½ to 2 inches long; usually three of these are tied together at the ends by different coloured silks. These are made both of green and black tea, and, like the former, is only imported as presents.

There are many different growths of Singlo and Hyson teas, and also some difference in the manner of curing them, according to the skill or fancy of the curer. This occasions difference of quality in the teas, as does also a good or bad season; a rainy season, for instance, makes the leaves yellow, and a cold season nips the trees, and makes the leaves poor. The Chinese at Canton also sell all sorts of old teas for new, after they have prepared them for that purpose, either by tatching or firing, and mixing them with new teas; but these deceits may, upon strict inspection, be discovered; but where the advice of a person resident at Canton can be obtained, it is preferable to depending on your own judgment. The taste in England should be the guide; as teas, which may please the sight and palate at Canton, may, in the course of the voyage, lose their flavour, and be comparatively of little value.

The following are a few of the chops of Hyson teas brought to the Canton market, with the number of chests usually contained in a chop, and a description of their quality, according to the technical terms of the trade:

Chests.		Chests.	
Tien Hung	104 best in market.	Cowloong	170 middling and better.
Hung Hung	100 mid. and good mid.	Mun Kee	140 ditto.
Hung Hee	140 middling.	Khee Kee	110 ditto.
Wun Hee	151 ditto.	Hiong Chee	265 good middling.
Cow Mow	168 middling and better.	Wo Hung	134 middling.

The surface of a chest of tea often carries a superior appearance to the middle or bottom; it is therefore necessary to have some of them turned out. In the Company's teas about five in every 100 of the black teas are turned out, but in greens not so many, as the exposure to the air injures the appearance of the teas. Of teas purchased from the merchants who do not belong to the Hong, it is necessary to be very particular in examining them, as they are often falsely packed.

The following are the tares and allowances on teas at the East India Company's sales:

When goods are received into the Private Trade warehouses, they are brought to sale with all possible dispatch. In these warehouses an even beam is never admitted; but in such cases a one pound weight is always added to the tare; and on all packages taring 28 lbs. or upwards, one pound super-tare is allowed.

Upon packages weighing 28 lbs. gross, a two ounce weight is placed in the scale by way of giving a turn in favour of the trade. One pound is also allowed for draft on goods of the above weight, and in case of an even beam, one pound is deducted; this pound is also allowed by the Customs and Excise, but not the two ounce weight, except by the Excise, and that on tea only.

In taring goods, the scale in which the weights are placed, is allowed to preponderate. On quarter chests, if on averaging those tared, they turn out even pounds, no further allowance is made, unless the chest weighs gross 84 lbs. or upwards, in which case one pound is allowed for super-tare on each package; but if there be a fraction, the fraction wanting is only allowed. Thus if the average tare be 22 lbs. the allowance is 23 lbs. and it is the same, viz. 23 lbs. if the average tare be 22¼ lbs. On half chests, if on averaging those tared, they turn out even pounds, a pound is allowed for super-tare on each package; and if there be a fraction, it is reckoned a pound as before: thus if the average tare be 36 lbs. the allowance is 37 lbs. and if 36¼ lbs. the allowance is 38 lbs.

On whole chests, if on averaging those tared, they turn out even pounds, 2 lbs. are allowed on each package for super-tare; but if there be a fraction, 1 lb. and the fraction wanting are allowed. Thus if the average tare be 66 lbs. the allowance is 68 lbs. and it is the same if the average tare be 66¼ lbs.

The foregoing allowances on tea are also made by the Excise; but the Customs allow only the pound for a fraction, as before stated.

Teas are generally allotted and arranged for sale by the East India Company, according to the Chinese chops, which indicate them to be of one growth: all the Hyson teas in one mark or chop being classed in the same bed or parcel, which thus becomes almost synonymous terms: they are then subdivided into lots of a certain number of chests, because it is found that the tea in each chop is always exactly the same kind, although it may happen to be rather fresher and better in one year than in another. The number of chests in a lot are usually

Bohea	3 chests.	Twankay	6 chests.
Congou	5 ditto.	Hyson Skin	6 ditto.
Souchong	4 ditto.	Hyson	6 ditto.
Singlo	6 ditto.	Gunpowder	2 or 3 ditto.

The following are the broker's marks on teas, and their explanation:

M	Musty and mouldy.	*l*	Middling.	⊣	Fine.
m	Musty.	*ll*	Good middling.	P	Plundered.
fs	Barely sweet.	⌜	Good.	D	Damage taken off.
l	Ordinary.	⊢	Very good.	T	Tared chests.

OVER ANY MARK.

q	Better face than the common run of the sort.	*SL*	Single Leaf.	*bb*	High burnt.
		f	Flaggy.	*smo*	Smokey.
h	Heated.	*w*	Woody.	*a*	Signifies half a degree better.
b	Blooms.	*os*	Odd smell.		
L	Large Leaf.	*d*	Dusty.	*sh*	Shippy.
sm	Small Leaf.	*bt*	Little burnt.		

The brokers' charge on managing Private Trade teas at the sale is generally half per cent.

The Company are obliged by Act of Parliament to make four sales of tea in a year, putting them up at certain prices, and selling to the best bidder; but if there are no buyers at the fixed prices, the teas rejected, are generally put up at the following sale at no price, and sold to the highest bidder.

The propagation of the tea-tree in Europe being very desirable, the following methods are recommended for preserving the seeds or plants from China to Europe.

Care should be taken that the seeds are fresh, sound, ripe, plump, and moist internally; after being well dried in the sun, they may be enclosed in bees wax: or left in their capsules, they may be put into very close canisters of tin or tutenague. In the directions given to La Peyrouse by the French Government, it is recommended that these and other seeds be placed in alternate layers of earth or sand in tin boxes closed up exactly, and placed in solid cases covered with waxed cloth; the boxes to be placed in a part of the ship least accessible to moisture, and the most sheltered from extreme heat or cold. Seeds packed in absorbent paper, and surrounded by raisins or moist sugar, are kept a long time in a state fit for vegetation. American seeds are frequently brought over, by putting them into a box not made too close, upon alternate layers of moss, in such a manner as to admit the seeds to vegetate. This might be tried with the seeds of the tea-tree; and to succeed more certainly, some of the seeds might be sown in pots or boxes when the ship arrives at Saint Helena, and after passing the Tropic of Cancer, or near the latitude of 30° North. But the best method seems to be, to sow ripe seeds in good light earth in boxes on leaving Canton, covering them with wire to prevent rats and other vermin coming to them, and taking care that the boxes be not exposed to too much air, nor to the spray of the sea. A little fresh or rain water should be sprinkled over them now and then, and when the seedling plants appear, they should be kept moist, and out of the burning sun. If young plants can be procured in China, they may be sent over in a growing state in boxes 3 feet 4 inches long, 20 inches broad, and as much deep, having a few holes bored through the bottom.

RISE, PROGRESS,

AND

PRESENT STATE OF THE TEA TRADE.

Tea, which, about one hundred and fifty years ago, was scarcely known as a commodity of traffic, now holds the most distinguished rank in the list of Asiatic imports. It is not only the most extensive, but the least fluctuating branch of the East India Company's concerns; nor are the advantages that result

therefrom confined merely to the Company alone; the public are deeply interested therein. It benefits navigation, by affording constant employment, out and home, for at least 50,000 tons of shipping, and 6000 seamen; it has been the means of opening an increased market for the vent of one of the most important of our national manufactures, (woollens, to the extent of upwards of a million sterling per annum); and it has at all times contributed largely in support of the public revenue.

When the Chinese first began to use tea as a beverage, we cannot trace. The first accounts we have of it, are from two Arabian travellers who visited China about 850, and relate, the inhabitants had a beverage they called "Chah," and that a considerable revenue was levied on its consumption; it seems, therefore, to have been as universally in use then as at present.

The first European writer who mentions tea, is Botero, an Italian, who published a treatise in 1590, in which he does not indeed mention its name, but describes it in such a manner, that it is impossible to mistake it. He says, "the Chinese have a herb, out of which they press a delicate juice, which serves them for drink instead of wine; it also preserves their health, and frees them from those evils that the immoderate use of wine doth breed unto us." In 1600 Teixera, a Spaniard, saw the dried leaves in Malacca, where he was informed the Chinese prepared a drink from it.

Olearius, a German, found the custom of drinking tea prevalent among the Persians in 1633, and gave the following description:—"They drink a kind of black water, prepared from a decoction of a certain shrub, called Cha, or Chia, which the Usbeck Tartars import from China; the leaves are long and taper, measuring nearly an inch, of a black colour when dried and welked, and shrivelled like worms." Starkaw, the Russian Ambassador at the Court of the Mogul in 1639, partook of this beverage. "I know not," says he, "whether they are the leaves of a tree or a herb; they are boiled in water, with the addition of some milk." At his departure he was offered a quantity of tea as a present for the Czar; but the ambassador declined the compliment, as it would only encumber him with a commodity for which he had no use. Dufour in 1693 remarks, "that tea is in great repute in China, Japan, Tonquin, and Tartary; that, after making its way into India, it passed to Persia, and from thence to Turkey, in which latter place the use of it was not very general, as the Turks gave a decided preference to coffee."

The precise period at which tea was first introduced into Europe, is in some measure involved in obscurity. The Editors of the Encyclopædia Britannica state, that it was first imported by the Dutch in 1610; it is most certain that in 1611 the agents of the Dutch East India Company solicited and obtained a grant from the Emperor of Japan, allowing them to trade in his territories. This treaty was effected through the medium of letters addressed to the Emperor by Prince Maurice, then at the head of the Dutch Government. An interchange of presents took place, agreeable to the invariable usage among Eastern nations on all diplomatic occasions, and in that made by the Emperor, doubtless tea was included, as one of the natural productions of his country. This accounts in a satisfactory manner for the introduction of tea into Holland; but when it is considered that the Portuguese, immediately after the discovery of a passage to India by the way of the Cape of Good Hope, in 1497, formed extensive establishments in almost every part of that country—that they resided in great numbers at Japan, long before the Dutch made their appearance at that place—that they had a trading intercourse with China direct, and had sent an ambassador to Pekin as early as 1517—and, above all, that they obtained a settlement upon Macao in 1586, it is a fair presumption that the inhabitants of Portugal could not for more than an entire century have remained strangers to a commodity that was so familiar to their countrymen in every part of Asia.

The Dutch East India Company were unquestionably the first who engaged in tea as an article of commerce; and from the beginning until near the close of the seventeenth century, the whole of the European demand was supplied through the medium of their sales. The quantities that were imported during this period, are perhaps to be ascertained only by referring to the Dutch East India Company's books.

It is sufficient, however, in this place to remark, that they must have been comparatively trifling. Its principal channel of expenditure was in medicine, where it failed of obtaining any considerable degree of reputation, owing to the discordant opinions that were held by the faculty with regard to its properties.

In 1635 Simon Pauli publicly declared against it, in a treatise entitled "Comment. de Abusu Tabacca et Theæ," in which he was followed by many others, who concurred with him in opinion as to the use of it being attended with injurious effects. On the other hand, it was not without its advocates, by whom it was highly extolled for its virtues. Thus circumstanced, it could hardly be expected that tea should make any rapid advances in the public estimation. Valentyn, a native of the Netherlands, relates that in 1670 the use of it was unknown in his native town of Dort. About this time, he adds, Vanden Brouke and De Leonardis attempted to introduce the practice of drinking the infusion as a beverage, but with so little success, that it was publicly ridiculed, under the name of "lieu wasser," or hay water.

About 1673 tea met with a powerful supporter in Dr. Cornelius Bontekoe. This gentleman, whose eminence in his profession had raised him to the situation of first physician to the Elector of Brandenburgh, entertained the highest opinion of its salutary qualities, and deemed it impossible to injure the stomach, even if as much as two or three hundred cups were taken in the day. The Dutch East India Company were so highly pleased with this work, that they voted the author a handsome pecuniary gratification.

The sanction of so respectable an authority had its operation in relieving tea from many of the prejudices that had been entertained against it; but the high price at which it continued to be vended, prevented the consumption from being materially increased. In fact, tea has never been in very extensive use upon the Continent, nor would it probably have attracted the attention of foreigners, as a distinct object of commerce, had they not in more recent periods availed themselves of the opportunities that offered, of participating in the supply of this country, through the medium of a contraband trade.

Having thus given a brief statement of the progress of tea upon the Continent, to the close of the seventeenth century, we next proceed to shew that, at the like period, its advances had not been more rapid in this country.

The use of tea had obtained in England long before the East India Company adopted it as an article of trade; but when or by whom it was first introduced, cannot be ascertained with any direct certainty. Jonas Hanway asserts that a quantity of it was first brought from Holland, in the baggage of the Lords Arlington and Ossory, in the year 1666, by whom it was introduced among the nobility as a novelty. Sir John Hawkins, in his Life of Dr. Johnson, is of opinion that Mr. Hanway is not accurate on this head, and cites an ode of Waller to the Queen, to prove that in 1683 it was considered as a new thing; but it is evident that neither of these gentlemen is correct. It has again been held by others that tea was unknown in 1660, because it is not to be found among the established articles of import, specified in the Book of Rates referred to in the Act of 12 Charles II. chap. 4, commonly called the "Tonnage and Poundage Act." The same observation is equally applicable to coffee and chocolate. This affords conclusive evidence that neither of these articles was considered at the time of sufficient importance to merit a place among the materials of commerce; but that they were all known, and all in previous use, is placed beyond the possibility of doubt, by referring to two Acts of Parliament, passed in the same year, 12 Charles II. chap. 23 and 24, the one granting to His Majesty an inland or excise duty on certain commodities therein named, during his life; the other in perpetuity, as a compensation in lieu of the advantages that were derived from the Courts of Wards and Liveries and Tenures in Capite, which had been given up. By each of these acts it is directed that there shall be paid by the maker thereof,

For every gallon of coffee made and sold.....Fourpence
For every gallon of chocolate, sherbet, and tea made and sold .....Eightpence

To this, in the year 1670, by an Act of 22 and 23 Charles II. chap. 3, was added a further addition of the like sums, by which the duty on tea was increased to two shillings per gallon.

This singular mode of taxation, so different from the modern practice, may not at present be very readily understood; but by adverting to a few circumstances, the needful explanation may be afforded, and at the same time not prove irrelevant to the subject.

It is on all hands agreed that the introduction of coffee into this country took place prior to that of chocolate or tea. The difference, however, between each must, in point of time, have been so trifling, as scarce to admit of a distinction. It has been held by many respectable authorities, that coffee was first brought to England in 1652 by Mr. Edwards, a member of the Turkey Company, and that his servant was the first who opened a house for publicly vending it as a drink; but it appears from the following extracts from the Life of Wood, the antiquarian, that a coffee-house had been opened at Oxford a year or two sooner. "In 1651 one Jacob, a Jew, opened a coffee-house at the Angel, in the parish of St. Peter, in the East Oxon, and there it was, by some who delighted in novelties, drunk. When he left Oxon, he sold it in Old Southampton Buildings, in Holborne, neare London, and was living there in 1671."

The love of novelty is a predominant feature in the British character. Coffee no sooner became known, than it was eagerly sought after as a fashionable beverage, and houses were opened in various parts of the metropolis, as also in other parts of the kingdom, for vending it as a public drink, to which quickly succeeded chocolate, sherbet, and tea. The latter article was in use in 1661, as appears from the manuscript diary of Mr. Samuel Pepys, in the Pepysian Library at Cambridge, which says, "September 25, 1661, I sent for a cup of tea (a China drink), of which I had never drunk before, and went away."

These authorities are satisfactory that tea was originally drunk in the public coffee-houses in common with coffee, chocolate, and sherbet. In proportion as the coffee-houses were frequented, the taverns became deserted; and Government, finding a sensible diminution in the duty upon wines, judged it necessary that the deficiency should be made up by a tax on the liquors consumed in the coffee-houses, as also that those houses should be placed under a similar degree of restraint with taverns and ale-houses, by requiring the keepers of them to take out a licence at the Quarter Sessions, and enter into security for the due payment of the excise duty. If they neglected to do this, they were liable to a penalty of £5 per month.

The excise officers attended the coffee-houses at stated periods, and took an account of the number of gallons of each liquid that were made, upon which the duties were charged. This practice existed till 1689, when, "it being found by experience that collecting the excise duty upon the liquors of coffee, tea, and chocolate was troublesome and unequal upon the retailers, and required such an attendance of officers, as rendered the receipt thereof very inconsiderable," (so says the preamble to the Act, William and Mary, session 2, chap. 6), it was resolved to discontinue it, and in lieu thereof, to establish an additional custom duty of five shillings per pound.

It is very doubtful whether there are any records in existence, either at the Custom House or the Excise Office, that will shew the quantities of tea that were imported during this period, or the number of gallons of tea on which the excise duty was paid; but it may be reasonably concluded they must have been very trifling, from the high price it bore, which was from 40 to 50 shillings per pound at the first cost.

That tea was considered a scarce and valuable article in 1664, may be gathered from the following entries in the Company's records:

"1664, July 1.—Ordered, that the master-attendant do go on board the ships, now arrived, and enquire what rarities of birds, beasts, or other curiosities there are on board, fit to present to His Majesty, and to desire that they may not be disposed of till the Company are supplied with such as they may wish, on paying for the same." And on "the 22d of August, the Governor acquainting the Court that the factors have in every instance failed the Company of such things as they writ for, to have presented His Majesty

with, and that His Majesty may not find himself wholly neglected by the Company, he was of opinion, if the Court think fit, that a silver case of oil of cinnamon, which is to be had of Mr. Thomas Winter for £75, and some good *thea*, be provided for that end, which he hopes may be acceptable. The Court approved very well thereof."

1664, September 30. There is in the general books an entry that

"Sundry accounts oweth to John Staunion, Secretary,

"Presents.—For a case containing six China bottles, headed with silver.....£13 0 0

"More for 2 lbs. 2 oz. of *thea*, for His Majesty ..... 4 5 0"

1666, June 30. There is a similar entry of several *rarityes*, chiefly the productions of China, provided by the Secretary for His Majesty, among which are

22½ lbs. of *thea*, at 50 shillings per lb. £56 17 6

For the two *cheefe* persons that attended His Majesty, *thea* 6 15 0

There are also about the same period, various entries of small purchases of from 6 to 8 lbs. at a time, for the use of the Court of Committees, bought of the coffee-house keepers. At this period the Company held no trading intercourse with China. In 1635 some persons, under the authority of a grant from King Charles I. (which was a manifest infringement of the Company's charter), set on foot a voyage thither, and actually reached Canton; but, owing to the jealousies and intrigues of the Portuguese, they were eventually ruined. Various attempts were also made at subsequent periods by the Company to carry on a trade with China, and factories were established on several of the islands which border on that Continent, as Tywan, Tonquin, Amoy, &c. but they were all eventually withdrawn, not answering the expence of their maintenance.

1667. The East India Company's first order for importing tea was issued to their agent at Bantam, "to send home by these ships 100 lbs. waight of the best tey that you can get." The first importation made by them was in

1669, when two canisters were received from Bantam, weighing .....143 lbs. 8 oz.

1670. Four pots were imported, weighing..... 79 lbs. 6 oz.

of this 132¼ lbs. being damaged, were sold at their sales for 3s. 2d. per lb. and the remainder was consumed by the Court of Committees.

In this year a further duty of 8d. per gallon was laid upon the liquor produced from tea, making in the whole 2s. per gallon.

1671. There was received from Bantam part of the Tywan present, 266 lbs. 10 oz.

1672. There were no imports or purchases.

1673–4. It appears that the Company bought of several persons 55 lbs. 10 oz. one of whom was Thomas Garraway (the master of the coffee-house that still retains his name), some of which appears to have been distributed as presents; the rest was consumed by the Court of Committees.

The following are the quantities of tea imported or purchased in the years 1675 to 1686 inclusive:

1675 to 1677. There were no imports or purchases.
1678. Imported from Ganjam and Bantam 4717 lbs.
1679. Imported from Bantam..... 197 lbs.
1680. Imported from Surat ..... 143 lbs.
1681. There were no imports or purchases.
1682. Imported from India.....70 lbs.
1683 to 1684. There were no imports or purchases.
1685. Imported from Madras and Surat 12,070 lbs.
1686. The imports were..... 65 lbs.

most of which appears to have been sold at different periods from 11s. 6d. to 12s. 4d. per lb.

In this year the Company's commercial orders to Surat were, that teas should in future form a part of the Company's imports, and not be articles of private trade; and in their instructions in 1687, the Court desired, "that very good thea might be putt up in tutinague potts, and well and closely packed in chests or boxes, as it will always turn to accompt here, now it is made the Company's commodity; whereas before there were so many sellers of that commodity, that it would hardly yield half its cost, and some trash then from Bantam was forct to be thrown away, or sold for 4d. or 6d. per lb."

The following were the quantities imported in the years 1687 to 1690 inclusive:

1687. There were imported from Surat .....4,995 lbs.
1688. There were imported from the same place.....1,666 ditto.
1689. There were imported from Amoy and Madras .....25,300 ditto.
1690. There were imported from Surat, and by individuals .....41,471 ditto.

In 1690, by an Act of the 2d of William and Mary, session 2, chap. 4. the legislature granted His Majesty additional duties on various specific articles, among which was an impost of 20 per cent. generally on all manufactures of India and China, except indigo and raw silk. From this heavy duty, which has operated most severely upon many of the Asiatic productions to the present day, tea was exempted, as not strictly falling under the description of a manufactured commodity. The duties laid by this Act were termed the "Impost, 1690."

In consequence of the heavy duty which had been laid upon tea, the Company this year prohibited any to be sent but of the finest kinds on their account; an order which probably arose from the quantities of the article brought by the Dutch into the Europe market.

The above are taken from the Old East India Company's books.

In 1695 teas and spices were allowed to be imported from Holland by licence. The annual imports from this period to 1710 inclusive are taken from the Custom-house books, and are as follow:

1691. There were imported in the permission trade .....13,750 lbs.
1692. The imports from Madras and in the permission trade were .....18,379 ditto.

1692. By an Act of 4 William and Mary, chap. 5, further additional duties were imposed on various specified articles, and upon such as were not mentioned in the Book of Rates, or were not rated to the impost of 1690, an additional 5 per cent. *ad valorem*. This included tea. These duties obtained the name of "The additional Impost, 1692," and were to be paid within 12 months, by four equal quarterly payments, with an allowance of discount after the rate of 10 per cent. which being equated, gave at the rate of 6⅔ per cent. per annum, for prompt payment. The whole of the duties laid by this Act were to be drawn back upon exportation.

The duty of 5s. on every pound weight of tea, laid by William and Mary, session 2, chap. 6, being found excessive, whereby but little of it was brought to a regular entry, it was by this Act, section 13, reduced to 1s.; but no mention is made whether any portion of it was allowed to be drawn back on exportation.

1693. The imports from Madras and in the permission trade were .....711 lbs.
1694. Ditto.....ditto.....352 ditto.
1695. Ditto.....ditto.....132 ditto.
1696. Ditto.....ditto..... 70 ditto.

In 1690, by an Act of 6 and 7 William and Mary, chap. 7, section 2, tea and spices were allowed to be imported from Holland, upon a licence being obtained from the Commissioners of Customs; it also imposed fresh duties upon tea of 1s. per pound weight, if imported direct from the place of its growth, and 2s. 6d. per pound weight if imported from Holland; two-thirds of which duties were allowed to be drawn back on exportation.

In 1697 there were imported from Holland 126 lbs. and from India 22,290 lbs.....Total 22,416 lbs.

In 1698 there were imported from India .....21,302 ditto.

1698. By 9 and 10 William III. chap. 23, a further 5 per cent. was laid upon all imports, the whole of which was to be drawn back on exportation. This was called the "New Subsidy."

1699. There were imported from Holland 20 lbs. and from India 13,201 lbs. in all 13,221 lbs.

The Company ordered "300 tubs of fine green teas, and 80 tubs of Bohea, having both become in great request at the home sales." The orders for packing it went to one object only, that of preventing it from acquiring any smell from the tutenague pots in which it was enclosed.

In 1700 there were imported from Holland 236 lbs. and from India 90,947 lbs. in all 91,183 lbs.

The average of the last four years was 36,935 lbs. per annum.

Such appears to have been the state of the tea trade in England at the close of the seventeenth century, when it was nearly, if not altogether, unknown in the sister kingdoms of Scotland and Ireland.

From 1701 to 1710 inclusive, the progress appears as follows:

In 1701 there were imported from India 66,738 lbs.

The Company's instructions to the supracargoes of their ships are very particular as to the mode of package and stowage, as appear from the following paragraph:

"Tea is a commodity of that general use, and so nicely to be managed in its package, to preserve its flavour and virtue, that you cannot be too careful in putting it up. Take special care, therefore, it be well closed in tutenague, then wrapped up in leaves, and so put into good tubs of dry, well-seasoned wood, made tight and close enough to preserve it from all manner of scent, which it is very subject to imbibe, and thereby become of no value here. But you must be sure that the wood of your tubs has no scent, whether sweet or unsavory, that will spoil the tea; so will camphire, musk, and all other strong scented commodities; wherefore no such smell must come into the ship, at least near the tea. For the like reason, take care the tutenague be well cured of the smell of the soldering oil before using. Bring no tea in small pots; it will not keep. Be sure the tea you bring be very new, and the best of its sort, remembering that in this and every other commodity, the worst pays as much freight as the best, and many times the same custom. Keep the tea in the coolest part of the ship; what is put in the hold, open the hatches in fair weather to give it air as often as you have opportunity. But you will see by the Captain's instructions, we have required that our tea be stowed between decks, abaft the after hatchway, with a bulk head, and a little gangway made for passage, which do you see done accordingly. It being now peace, we are resolved to dispense with our old order of stowing no goods between decks, when so great an advantage will accrue as the preserving the tea, a very considerable article in the profit and loss of that commodity."

1702. There were imported from Holland 9 lbs. and from the East Indies 37,052 lbs. in all 37,061 lbs.

The orders for tea becoming considerable, the Company's instructions were, to send a ship's cargo of tea, exclusive of 40 tons of copper and 24 tons of coffee, and to be two-thirds Singlo tea, one-sixth Imperial tea, and one-sixth Bohea tea.

In 1703, by 2 and 3 Anne, chap. 9, a further duty was granted on all imports, equal to one-third of the new subsidy imposed in 1698, the whole of which was allowed to be drawn back on exportation. This was termed "The One-third Subsidy."—By an Act of 3 and 4 Anne, chap. 4, an additional duty was imposed of 1s. per lb. on tea, imported from the place of its growth, and 2s. 6d. if from Holland, the whole of which to be drawn back on exportation.

In the same session, chap. 5, an additional grant was made of double the amount of the One-third Subsidy, with the like drawback. This obtained the name of the "Two-thirds Subsidy."

In the years 1703 to 1710 inclusive, the quantities of tea imported were as follow:

1703. There were imported from India 77,974 lbs.
1704. Imported from India ..... 63,141 lbs.
1705. Imported from Holland and India 6,739 lbs.
1706. Imported from India ..... 137,748 lbs.
1707. Imported from India ..... 32,209 lbs.
1708. Ditto 138,712 lbs. sale amount £127,862
1709. Ditto 98,715 lbs. ditto..... £ 85,053
1710. Ditto 127,298 lbs. ditto..... £104,758

The following is an account of the quantities of tea sold at the East India Company's sales in 100 years, 1711 to 1810 inclusive, together with the sale amount, the quantity exported, and the balance remaining for home consumption in each year during the same period.

Years.	Quantity sold.	Sale Amount.	Quantity Exported.	Balance remaining for Home Use.
	lbs.	£	lbs.	lbs.
1711	156,236	114,631	14,941	141,095
1712	159,478	117,377	9,014	150,464
1713	163,268	120,392	72,111	91,147
1714	297,566	172,801	139,154	158,411
1715	135,844	105,866	33,173	102,670
1716	210,578	163,444	26,445	184,133
1717	233,201	187,562	26,070	207,131
1718	329,272	251,515	117,081	212,191
1719	672,669	466,663	225,536	447,111
1720	396,625	279,780	36,771	237,804
1721	293,861	158,873	334,146	149,929
1722	785,967	297,897	562,753	
1723	1,055,290	395,110	603,192	447,098
1724	1,185,920	433,298	126,906	1,059,014
1725	349,966	103,805	63,571	286,394
1726	436,350	149,658	62,183	374,167
1727	589,846	244,125	48,753	541,093
1728	1,330,660	476,947	186,316	1,154,344
1729	1,416,038	446,836	185,685	1,074,692
1730	45,786	14,427	303,007	
1731	971,128	302,579	154,355	816,773
1732	680,496	180,026	89,384	538,212
1733	305,383	80,917	94,248	211,135
1734	1,249,744	291,876	422,370	827,374
1735	1,736,484	392,615	232,285	1,380,199
1736	1,138,679	255,001	241,809	896,870
1737	2,895,529	592,504	437,716	2,457,813
1738	1,761,958	331,602	464,789	1,297,169
1739	944,682	236,154	236,826	657,856
1740	1,643,981	390,050	350,352	1,293,549
1741	1,579,294	394,232	347,784	1,031,540
1742	690,807	172,792	400,849	289,958
1743	911,003	251,064	428,057	482,964
1744	2,584,945	405,918	593,121	1,471,824
1745	2,468,343	592,092	254,160	2,209,183
1746	3,334,165	575,923	72,665	3,448,500
1747	897,273	192,163	180,707	101,566
1748	2,838,006	768,556	545,524	2,492,482
1749	3,290,860	667,842	321,165	1,969,695
1750	2,324,918	544,579	209,990	2,114,922
1751	3,710,819	636,699	216,353	3,494,354
1752	1,768,749	483,799	224,000	1,544,749
1753	2,824,504	637,367	363,305	2,461,199
1754	4,502,919	601,042	346,795	2,155,224
1755	3,604,547	688,992	396,411	1,756,156
1756	3,500,264	836,037	791,170	2,109,094
1757	2,697,805	770,116	253,383	2,445,922
1758	1,870,945	313,576	294,102	1,576,743
1759	2,543,449	916,378	503,202	2,039,247
1760	3,606,552	831,894	592,930	2,993,615
1761	2,389,775	960,017	915,495	2,019,277
1762	2,705,363	922,044	410,651	2,294,712
1763	4,425,731	1,068,760	353,170	4,092,561
1764	5,584,707	1,719,693	676,651	4,986,056
1765	5,475,196	1,137,238	566,640	4,906,556
1766	5,506,356	993,838	592,502	5,005,854
1767	5,263,474	911,425	621,585	4,641,891
1768	3,525,803	1,321,972	1,857,166	6,666,717
1769	6,447,522	1,425,708	1,462,838	7,084,684
1770	5,374,421	1,355,963	650,883	7,723,538
1771	6,799,010	1,316,568	1,232,217	5,566,793
1772	7,032,134	1,238,434	1,146,181	5,886,953
1773	4,577,477	830,902	2,003,575	2,57 1,902
1774	6,831,534	1,041,841	1,141,150	5,687,384
1775	6,325,343	1,051,716	740,845	5,473,498
1776	4,877,935	777,011	814,394	3,763,540
1777	5,586,752	950,980	1,378,475	4,394,277
1778	4,770,539	809,388	1,368,240	3,402,271
1779	6,735,202	1,263,162	1,876,654	5,457,138
1780	7,538,278	1,500,305	1,970,069	5,568,215
1781	5,085,419	1,007,457	1,444,920	3,578,499
1782	6,883,664	1,242,766	2,116,810	4,766,854
1783	5,857,885	1,131,342	2,770,267	3,087,616
1784	10,146,257	1,774,503	1,559,194	8,587,063
1785	15,081,737	2,301,165	1,916,572	13,165,165
1786	15,531,192	2,422,209	1,945,686	13,585,506
1787	16,921,906	2,484,255	2,176,197	14,745,709
1788	15,325,559	2,363,465	1,795,951	13,429,468
1789	16,713,512	2,513,751	2,175,345	14,537,967
1790	16,654,467	2,616,563	2,001,499	14,652,968
1791	17,262,258	2,643,669	2,171,477	15,090,781
1792	18,153,999	2,705,198	2,212,808	15,941,191
1793	17,367,937	2,573,465	2,054,277	15,313,660
1794	19,144,190	2,932,112	2,507,742	16,642,448
1795	20,750,994	3,135,961	2,956,097	17,794,897
1796	19,107,253	2,757,699	2,557,960	16,549,563
1797	18,730,456	2,702,492	2,411,193	16,319,254
1798	22,063,969	3,072,252	3,455,351	18,608,617
1799	24,077,090	3,320,569	4,166,798	19,910,292
1800	23,373,616	3,662,144	3,019,269	20,354,347
1801	24,215,237	3,870,149	4,292,956	20,022,281
1802	23,288,210	3,952,118	3,450,312	21,837,898
1803	25,401,728	3,685,649	3,753,806	21,647,922
1804	22,140,224	3,561,037	3,658,620	18,501,604
1805	24,927,576	3,869,119	3,902,196	21,025,380
1806	22,895,615	3,720,958	3,329,943	19,565,672
1807	25,003,345	3,981,823	3,516,827	20,586,518
1808	25,397,905	4,243,843	3,462,186	21,935,209
1809	21,617,741	3,725,433	3,117,510	18,500,231
1810	24,550,923	4,162,904	3,918,813	20,632,110

From the foregoing statement it appears, that on an average of ten years, the quantities sold, the sale amount, the quantity exported, and the balance remaining for home consumption, have been as follow:

In the ten years	Quantity sold.	Sale Amount.	Exported.	Remaining for Home Use.
	lbs.	£	lbs.	lbs.
1711 to 1720 inclusive	2,645,337	1,769,649	823,580	1,821,757
1721 to 1730 ditto	7,467,874	2,731,078	2,401,733	5,066,141
1731 to 1740 ditto	13,263,164	2,901,324	2,787,214	10,475,950
1741 to 1750 ditto	18,069,606	4,399,556	3,465,972	14,603,634
1751 to 1760 ditto	25,869,753	7,236,421	3,012,132	22,857,621
1761 to 1770 ditto	58,587,416	11,519,985	7,627,610	50,959,806
1771 to 1780 ditto	60,689,183	10,548,302	12,989,112	47,700,071
1781 to 1790 ditto	123,171,196	19,808,196	19,882,481	103,288,715
1791 to 1800 ditto	200,017,212	30,617,781	27,387,772	172,629,440
1801 to 1810 ditto	240,438,275	38,272,303	36,093,069	204,345,206

forming a total in 100 years of 750,219,016 lbs. sold at the Company's sales, the value of which was £129,804,595; of which 116,470,675 lbs. were exported, and the remaining 633,748,341 lbs. retained for home consumption.

Thus it appears that within the short space of 150 years, the consumption of tea in Great Britain, notwithstanding the obstacles it has had to contend against, has been gradually increasing from a very few pounds, till it has reached the astonishing extent of upwards of 20,000,000 lbs. per annum. It may be literally said to have descended from the palace to the cottage, and from a fashionable and expensive luxury, has been converted into an essential comfort, if not an absolute necessary of life; or, as the late Lord Melville well observed, "though it may be deemed an artificial necessary, it becomes a necessary that few would be disposed to relinquish;" and in the existing state of circumstances, is an article which could not possibly be dispensed with, as it forms the morning's repast of most families in the kingdom.

Having thus stated the value and importance of this branch of trade, it is necessary to add a few remarks as to the system of policy necessary to be adopted, to prevent foreigners from again interfering in the internal supply of this kingdom, by the revival of that illicit traffic which was so effectually crushed by the operation of the Commutation Act which took place in 1784.

In the more early periods, as has been already stated, tea being considered as a fashionable luxury, the use of which was confined to the superior classes of the community, it was deemed a fair object of taxation. It was at first placed under the excise laws, and paid the duty when retailed in the liquid; but this being found both inconvenient and unproductive, it was in 1689 removed under the department of the Customs, and subjected to a duty of 5s. per lb. to be paid upon its import, in addition to the old subsidy of 5 per cent. of which two-thirds of the duty, or 3s. 4d. per lb. and half the subsidy, were allowed to be drawn back upon exportation. The severity of this duty led the way to fraudulent importations, by which the duties were either in the first instance altogether evaded, or if the teas were regularly entered, and the duties paid thereon, they were afterwards exported for the sake of the drawback, and landed again for home consumption. The natural remedy for this evil was to reduce the duty, which in 1692 was lowered from 5s. to 1s. per lb.; the ground of this reduction is clearly stated in the preamble to the Act 1 William and Mary, sess. 2, chap. 6, as follows—"that the duty was found to be so excessive, that but little of it was brought to a public entry." Had the policy that dictated this reduction, been pursued, the happiest consequences would have resulted to the Company, the revenue, and the fair trader; but unfortunately, as often as resources were required for the exigencies of the State, tea seems to have attracted the special notice of every Minister of Finance. It has not only been included in the various subsidies levied

on commercial articles in general, but it has been specifically selected to bear a distinct share of the national burthens. In 1695, for what reason does not appear, tea was allowed to be imported from Holland, on paying a duty of 2s. 6d. per lb. and the usual subsidy. In 1698 an additional 5 per cent. was laid on all imports, by which tea then paid 10 per cent. *ad valorem*, and 1s. per lb. In 1702 and 1703, a further duty of one-third and two-thirds of a subsidy was imposed, making in the whole a nominal 15 per cent., or, with certain allowances and discounts, an actual amount of £13 18s. 7½d per cent. together with 1s. per lb. if imported from the place of its growth, and 2s. 6d. if imported from Holland: an additional 1s. was also laid on tea imported from the place of its growth, and a further 2s. 6d. if imported from Holland, making it 2s. and 5s. The quantities sold from 1708 to 1712 were, on the average, 136,088 lbs. per annum; the average price was 16s. 2d. per lb. and the total amount of the duties bore a proportion of 36 per cent. on the net cost, free of duties.

In 1711 the duties of 2s. per lb. on the imports of tea from the place of its growth, and 5s. if from Holland, were doubled, or made 4s. and 10s. The quantities sold from 1713 to 1721 were, on the average, 290,276 lbs. the sale price was, on the average, 12s. 11d. and the proportion which the duties bore to the net price, was 82 per cent.

Although it was well known that the use of tea was gaining ground considerably, the legal imports were not found to bear a proportionate increase. The heavy duties, amounting to not less than 82 per cent. on the net cost, afforded an ample field for the exertions of foreigners and illicit traders, of which some did not omit to avail themselves: and there is good reason to conclude that the quantities of tea smuggled into this country very far exceeded the extent of the legal importation. This illicit trade was carried on with so much success, that it led the Emperor of Germany to establish an East India Company at Ostend, whose views were principally directed to the supply of the British smuggler. Various measures were devised to counteract this evil. The permission to import by licence from Holland was withdrawn; the Company made a considerable increase to their imports, and they reduced the putting up price at their sales to full one half. The immediate operation was, that the quantity of tea disposed of at their sales, which, in the years 1713 to 1721, averaged but 290,276 lbs. per annum, were in the two ensuing years, 1722 and 1723, increased to 919,628 lbs. The sale price also fell from 12s. 11d. to 7s. 6d. per lb.; but as no correspondent reduction was made in the amount of the duties, the incitement to evade their payment became considerably increased, the amount being equal to 200 per cent. on the net cost.

Although the quantities of tea disposed of at the Company's sales were considerably extended, they still bore but a small proportion to the internal consumption of the country, and the grossest frauds were practised upon Government, as well with regard to the imports as to the exports. Valentyn observes, that the whole quantity of tea imported in 1721 by England, Holland, France, and Ostend, amounted to 4,100,000 lbs.; of this in 1721 only 282,861 lbs. appear to have been sold by the Company in London, which left 3,817,139 lbs. for the Continental markets, but the greatest part of which found its way into this country.

In the ten years, from 1709 to 1718 inclusive, the quantities of tea exported were 473,357 lbs. or on an average 47,336 lbs. per annum. In the four succeeding years, from 1719 to 1722, it amounted to 1,301,178 lbs. or 325,294 lbs. per annum; and in 1723 it was extended to 608,192 lbs. which left the quantity in that year for the home consumption only 447,098 lbs. As these large exports were evidently for the fraudulent purpose of procuring the drawback, and afterwards relanding the commodity, it was in 1723 once more determined to put the tea under the excise. The custom duty of 4s. per lb. was in consequence converted into an inland duty, to be paid by the purchasers, upon clearing the tea for home consumption; and of the customs, which were £13 18s. 7½d. per cent. *ad valorem*, £12 3s. 8d. were allowed to be drawn back on exportation.

This regulation in some degree answered the purpose of checking the fraudulent exportations, as it appears that in the ensuing ten years, from 1724 to 1733, the exports were only 1,207,529 lbs. or per annum 120,753 lbs.: but it failed of giving any assistance to the Company's sales, which in the same period amounted on an average to only 724,276 lbs. per annum, or less by 195,352 lbs. than those of the years 1722 and 1723. The sale price was reduced from 7s. 6d. to 6s. 9d. per lb. by which the duties bore to the net cost 84 per cent.

In 1731 a law was made to prevent the adulteration of teas, which states in the preamble—

"Whereas several ill-disposed persons do frequently dye, fabricate, or manufacture very great quantities of sloe leaves, liquorice leaves, and the leaves of tea that have been before used, or the leaves of other trees, shrubs, or plants in imitation of tea, and do likewise mix, colour, stain, and dye such leaves with terra japonica, sugar, molasses, clay, logwood, and with other ingredients, and do sell and vend the same as true and real tea, to the prejudice of the health of His Majesty's subjects, the diminution of the revenue, and to the ruin of the fair trader, be it enacted, &c."

In consequence of this law several convictions took place. In 1736 a Jew dealer in the Minories, was convicted for selling 173 lbs. of dyed tea at 3s. 9d. per lb., for which he forfeited £10 per pound weight.

The following prices of the various species of tea per pound, imported at this period, are extracted from the prices current in the years 1731 to 1734 inclusive.

	1731	1732	1733	1734
Bohea, fine	12s to 14s	10s to 12s	9s to 11s	10s to 12s
Ditto, ordinary	9s to 10s	9s to 10s	7s to 8s	9s to 10s
Congou	12s to 16s	10s to 14s	10s to 14s	10s to 14s
Pekoe	16s to 18s	13s to 14s	9s to 14s	14s to 16s
Green, fine	12s to 15s	10s to 13s	8s to 12s	9s to 12s
Imperial	13s to 14s	11s to 12s	10s to 16s	9s to 12s
Hyson	30s to 35s	30s to 35s	24s to 28s	25s to 30s

From 1734 to 1744 the Company sold on an average 1,519,291 lbs. per annum. The price got down to 4s. 2d. per lb. by which the duties bore to the cost, at the rate of 128 per cent. The exports from 1734 to 1743 were on an average 364,196 lbs. per annum. The quantity exported in 1744 was 893,121 lbs.

The increase at the sales, however, by no means kept pace with the increased demand, and smuggling, through the medium of the Swedish and Danish Company's imports, the chief part of which was directed to the supply of this country, was carried to so alarming a length, that the Legislature thought it necessary to interfere for the protection of the public revenue. A Committee of the House of Commons was appointed in 1745, who were instructed to enquire into the cause of smuggling, and to suggest the means by which it might be prevented. This Committee, after giving great attention to the subject, came to various resolutions, among which were the following:

"That it is the opinion of this Committee, the high duties charged upon teas and other commodities have been one cause of the infamous practice of smuggling.

"That it is the opinion of this Committee, that lowering the duties on teas and other commodities, would be one means to prevent the said pernicious practice."

Had these resolutions been effectually followed up, it would have struck at the root of the evil; but the necessities of Government were such as to admit only of palliatives. A bill was passed, by which the excise duty of 4s. per lb. was reduced to 1s. and 25 per cent. *ad valorem* on the gross amount at the sales; and with a view to prevent frauds, it was resolved that all the drawbacks on tea should be abolished.

Under the operations of this Act, the sales from 1745 to 1747 were extended to an average of 1,756,593 lbs. per annum; but the price got up to 4s. 10d. per lb. by which the duty still proved equal to 69 per cent.

In 1747 supplies being required to conduct the war, an additional subsidy of 5 per cent. was laid on all imports. The quantity of tea sold from 1748 to 1759, was on the average 2,558,081 lbs. The average sale price increased to 5s. 5d. per lb. which left the duty at 75 per cent. on the net cost.

In 1759 it was found necessary to impose a further subsidy of 5 per cent. on all imports. The quantity of tea sold from 1760 to 1767 was on the average 4,333,276 lbs. The average price was 4s. 8d. per lb. and the duties were upon the net cost 90 per cent.

In 1767 the Company having a large stock of tea upon hand (upwards of 15,000,000 lbs.) which had been imported under an expectation that the regular market would take it off in larger quantities, it was agreed that the Excise duty of 1s. per lb. should be abolished for the five ensuing years on all the black and Singlo teas, and that the whole of the Customs should be drawn back on all the teas exported to Ireland or America, during the like period, on the Company engaging to indemnify the Government in case the duties should fall short of the amount of the sum paid on this account in the preceding five years. The Company entertained a hope that they should have been borne harmless by the increase that would take place in their sales; but the experiment failed of its effect. The sales, it is true, were extended, from 1768 to 1772, to an average of 8,075,794 lbs. but the price being reduced to 3s. 5d. instead of 4s. 8d. per lb. the duties fell short by £483,049, which the Company had to make good to Government, besides the further sum of £203,350 paid to the buyers on the like account. The quantity of tea exported during this period, from the allowance of the drawback, was 6,552,285 lbs. or on an average 1,310,457 lbs. per annum. In the five preceding years it was only 2,802,476 lbs. or 560,495 lbs. per annum. The duty during these five years, notwithstanding the reduction in the Excise, was equal to 64 per cent. on the net cost.

In the same year the legislature imposed a duty of 3d. per lb. on all teas imported into America.

In 1772 the Indemnity Act having expired, the Excise duty of 1s. per lb. was restored, and the drawbacks to Ireland and America were restricted to three-fifths of the amount of the Custom duties.

By a comparison made between the prices of teas sold in London in the September sale, 1772, with those sold at L'Orient, Gottenburgh, and Amsterdam, it appears that the prices of Boheas, Congous, and Singlos were on an average

46½ per cent. under the prices at Gottenburgh.
34½ ..... ditto ..... Holland.
15½ ..... ditto ..... L'Orient.

being 32 per cent. under the prices at all the different places, taken on an average. The following is a comparative view of the prices of the different kinds of tea at the above places:

L'Orient.—The prices of tea sold at Port L'Orient, October 8, 1772, converted into English money, exchange 31 1/16, being the course fixed at the sale, were as follow:

		s.	d.
Bohea	from 2 12 to 2 96 average 2 109 equal to £ sterling	2	2 per lb.
Verd superior, or Singlo	6 to 5 12	4	11½
Hyson	9 to 8 16	7	6½
Congou	4 14 to 2 16	3	2½

N. B. The French pound is 9 per cent. heavier than the English, and the discounts and allowances made by the English East India Company, are 6 per cent. more than the French.

GOTTENBURGH.—The prices of teas at the sales at Gottenburgh, August 20, 1772, converted into English money, at 70 dalers per pound sterling, were as follow:

			£.	d.	
Bohea	from 68 to 80 dalers,	average 74 dalers, equal to £ sterling	2	3	per lb.
Congou	97 to 138	118 ditto	3	7½	
Hyson	234 to 313	274 ditto	8	4½	
Singlo	252 to 267	260 ditto	7	11½	

N. B. The Swedish pound is 8 per cent. lighter than the English, and the discount and allowances made by the English East India Company, are 6 per cent. more than at Gottenburgh.

AMSTERDAM.—The prices of teas at Amsterdam in October and November, 1772, converted into English money, at 35s. 4d. per pound sterling, were as follow:

			£.	d.
Bohea	from 26 to 23 stivers,	average 24½ stivers, equal to £ sterling	2	2½
Congou	60 to 40	50	4	6½
Hyson	85 to 76	80½	7	4½
Singlo	60 to 55	57½	5	3½

N. B. The Dutch pound is 9 per cent. heavier than the English, and the discount and allowances made by the English East India Company, are 6 per cent. more than the Dutch.

Recapitulation of the comparative Prices at the last Sales at the different Places.

Boheas, in London	1s. 10½d.	at L'Orient	2s. 2d.	at Gottenburgh	2s. 3d.	at Amsterdam	2s. 2½d.
Congous	3s. 0½d.		3s. 2½d.		3s. 7½d.		4s. 6½d.
Singlo	4s. 0d.		4s. 11½d.		7s. 11½d.		5s. 3½d.
Hyson	7s. 4d.		7s. 6½d.		8s. 4½d.		7s. 4½d.

There being still a large dead stock of tea upon hand, the legislature passed an Act by which the Company were permitted to send teas to America, and parts beyond seas, free of duty; and the whole of the Custom duties that had been paid upon tea, were allowed to be drawn back on the exports to America. In consequence of this Act, the Company made some consignments of tea to Boston, New York, Philadelphia, and South Carolina, which in part gave rise to the unfortunate contest that ended in the final separation of America from the mother country.

From 1773 to 1777 the sales fell back from the average of the five preceding years, which were 8,075,794 lbs. per annum, to 5,559,007 lbs. per annum. The price continued nearly the same, *viz.* 3s. 4d. per lb., and the duty bore, in proportion to the net cost, 106 per cent.

In 1777 teas exported to Ireland were allowed to drawback the whole duty of Customs.

In 1779 a duty of 5 per cent. was imposed on the net amount of the Customs and Excise. The quantities of tea sold by the Company in 1778 and 1779, were on the average 5,751,861 lbs. The average price was 3s. 7d., and the duties bore a proportion of exactly 100 per cent. on the net cost.

In 1781 the discounts and allowances on the Customs were abolished, and an additional 5 per cent. was imposed on the Excise duties. The sales in 1780 and 1781 averaged 6,291,348 lbs.; the price was 3s. 8d. and the duty bore a proportion to the prime cost of 106 per cent.

In 1782 a further 5 per cent. was laid on the net produce of the Customs and Excise. The sales in this year were 6,283,614 lbs., the price was 3s. 11d., and the duty 105 per cent.

In 1783 there were sold 5,857,883 lbs. at 3s. 10d. per lb. the duty on which was equal to 114 per cent.; and in the beginning of 1784 the duties were, Customs £27 0s. 10d. per cent. and the Excise £28 15s. on the gross amount of the sales, and 1s. 1d. 8 dec. on every pound weight, which will be found equal to 119 per cent. on the average sale price.

In 1784 a most important change took place in the national commerce. The injury sustained by the fair dealer from smuggling was now grown to such a height, more particularly in the importation of tea, that it was computed that scarcely one-third of the quantity of that article consumed in Great Britain, was fairly imported. Tea, from the universal use of it in this country, the high premium for smuggling it, (high duties being the true premiums to smuggling), and the convenient removal of it in small handy parcels, was perhaps, of all others, the most valuable article to the smuggler. The defalcation of the revenue from smuggling was estimated at not less than two millions a year; it was therefore thought advisable to lower the duties on some of the articles which composed the smugglers' cargoes, and especially on tea, which was justly considered the basis of their whole trade: but as it was uncertain how far the increased consumption of tea, legally imported, would make up for the diminution of the rate of duty, it was proposed to raise at least £600,000, the estimated amount of the intended reduction from the former duties, by a duty upon windows, or as it is in general termed the "Commutation Tax."

It was therefore enacted that the existing duties upon tea should be repealed; and instead of them, all teas to be delivered from the warehouses of the East India Company, after the 15th of September, 1784, should be charged with a duty of 12½ per cent. computed upon the sale price, which the Company are required to receive from the buyers, and to pay to the Collector of the Customs. Teas exported to any place to which a drawback is allowed, may be shipped from the warehouses free of duty, or may drawback the whole duty, if it has been paid. And it being reasonable that "the Company should, in consideration of the great benefit which may result to their commerce from the reduction of duties hereby made, contribute their utmost endeavours for securing to the public the full benefit which will arise from an immediate and permanent reduction of prices;" they were directed to make four sales of tea every year, and to put up at least 5,000,000 lbs. at the first sale; 2,500,000 lbs. at the second; and thereafter such quantities as might be judged sufficient for the demand. And that the Company might take no advantage of the real monopoly of tea, which this Act would throw into their hands, they were obliged to put up the teas at the first four sales, to be made after passing this Act, at the following prices, viz.

Bohea	1s. 7d. per lb.	Souchong and Singlo	3s. 3d. per lb.
Congou	2s. 5d.	Hyson	4s. 11d.

and to sell them without reserve, if but one penny per pound above these prices were offered. They were besides at all times to keep on hand a sufficient stock for at least one year's consumption, and to put them up to auction at a price not exceeding the prime cost and charges, whereby their profit was made to consist in the advance given to them by the buyers above the upset price.

The success of this measure was beyond the most sanguine expectations. The views of the smugglers were completely defeated, and tea for the first time was diverted into its legal and proper channel.

The Company, with a view of removing the temptation to smuggling, sent orders to the different places on the Continent, to purchase whatever tea the various East India Companies had on hand; and in the years 1784, 1785, and 1786, they imported from thence 17,312,484 lbs. of tea, thus relieving those Companies of a commodity for which there was but a small demand on the Continent.

In the year 1783 the quantity of tea sold at the Company's sales amounted to only 5,857,883 lbs.; in 1785 it was extended to 15,081,737 lbs. and it has been since gradually increasing in the following proportions.

From 1786 to 1794 the average was 16,964,957 lbs. per annum.

In 1795 the duty upon tea was raised from 12½ to 20 per cent.; and the sales in 1795 and 1796 were, on an average, 19,929,258 lbs. per annum.

In 1797 the duty of 20 per cent. was raised to 30 on all teas that sold at and above 2s. 6d. per lb. The quantity sold in this year was 14,937,404 lbs. at and above 2s. 6d., and 3,138,702 lbs. under 2s. 6d. per lb.; in the whole 18,076,106 lbs.

In 1798 the duty was farther raised, as above, to 30 per cent. and the quantities of teas sold in 1798 and 1799 were, on the average, 19,541,537 lbs. at and above 2s. 6d. per lb. and 3,921,899 lbs. under 2s. 6d. in the whole 23,463,436 lbs.

In 1800 the duty was increased to 40 per cent. on all teas at and above 2s. 6d. per lb. and 20 per cent. on all under 2s. 6d. per lb. In this year the quantity sold at and above 2s. 6d. per lb. was 20,970,860 lbs. and 2,422,785 lbs. under 2s. 6d. making in the whole 23,393,645 lbs. of the following sorts:

Bohea	2,426,340 lbs.	Singlo	2,454,693 lbs.
Congou	13,754,203 ditto.	Hyson	1,802,101 ditto.
Souchong	2,107,481 ditto.	Private trade	848,827 ditto.

In 1801 the duty of 40 per cent. was increased to 50, as above, and the quantity sold was 20,672,215 lbs. at and above 2s. 6d. per lb. and 3,865,398 lbs. under 2s. 6d. making in the whole 24,537,613 lbs.

In June, 1803, the duty was increased to 65 per cent. on all teas under 2s. 6d. and 95 per cent. on all teas at or above 2s. 6d. per lb. to continue until 12 months after signing a definitive treaty of peace.

In May, 1806, the duties on tea were equalized, the former mode having been found prejudicial to the sales, and in lieu of all other duties, there was laid 6 per cent. customs, a permanent excise duty of 45 per cent. and a temporary or war duty of 45 per cent. making in the whole 96 per cent. on the sale value, which duties the article still continues subject to.

It is much to be lamented that the exigencies of the State have been so urgent as to reduce His Majesty's ministers to the necessity of raising the duties upon tea to such an enormous extent. The situation of public affairs, with respect to the commercial operations, has been such, that no inconveniences have hitherto been felt therefrom: but it is to be feared that as soon as peace is effectually restored, unless the duties are again lowered, smuggling will revive in all its former vigour. An idea of the extent to which this illicit trade was carried, may be gathered from the following statement:

In the ten years previous to the passing of the Commutation Act, the quantities of teas exported from Canton to Europe appear to have been

By the Dutch, Danes, Swedes, French, &c.	134,698,900 lbs.
By the English East India Company	54,506,144

and in the ten years, 1790 to 1800, there were exported

By the Dutch, Danes, Swedes, French, &c.	38,506,646 lbs.
By the Americans	27,350,900
By the English East India Company	228,826,616

Such are the important advantages that have resulted from the Commutation Act. They can be preserved only by a rigid adherence to the principle on which it was founded, as experience has uniformly demonstrated, that when the temptation is sufficient to counterbalance the risk, no laws, however wisely formed, or vigorously carried into effect, will be able to check the practice of adulteration.

The following is a statement of the quantities of teas sold during various periods, together with the sale amount, the duty per cent. thereon, and the estimated duty collected, from 1711 to 1793 inclusive.

IN THE YEARS	Total Quantity sold.	Sale Amount, less Discount.	Duty per Cent.	Estimated Amount of Duty.
	lbs.	£	£	£
1711 and 1712	315,714	232,008	36 per cent.	83,523
1713 to 1721 inclusive	2,612,484	1,696,516	82 ditto.	1,391,143
1722 and 1723 ditto	1,839,257	693,007	200 ditto.	1,386,014
1724 to 1733 ditto	7,242,763	2,443,318	84 ditto.	2,052,387
1734 to 1744 ditto	16,712,204	3,489,218	128 ditto.	4,466,199
1745 to 1747 ditto	5,269,781	1,267,273	69 ditto.	874,418
1748 to 1759 ditto	30,696,979	8,384,784	75 ditto.	6,288,588
1760 to 1767 ditto	34,666,142	8,047,736	90 ditto.	7,242,962
1768 to 1772 ditto	40,378,970	6,858,651	64 ditto.	4,389,537
1773 to 1777 ditto	27,795,039	4,611,250	106 ditto.	4,887,925
1778 and 1779 ditto	11,503,722	2,072,745	100 ditto.	2,072,745
1780 and 1781 ditto	12,582,697	2,316,762	106 ditto.	2,455,768
1782	6,283,654	1,242,766	105 ditto.	1,304,904
1783	5,857,883	1,131,342	114 ditto.	1,289,730
1784	10,148,257	1,774,503	119 ditto.	2,111,659
1785	15,081,737	2,301,165	12¾ ditto.	278,645
1786 to 1793	133,540,430	20,276,046	12½ ditto.	2,534,506

Making a total of duty during the above period of £45,110,633

From 1794 to 1810 inclusive, the Excise duties collected on teas amounted to 29,309,643

From 1794 to 1810 inclusive, the Customs collected on the China trade were £3,246,480, four-fifths of which may be estimated to have arisen from tea 2,597,184

Forming a total in the 100 years, 1711 to 1810 inclusive, of £77,017,480

a sum exceeding the amount of the national debt of England in 1756.

Exclusive of the above amount of the duties of Customs and Excise which have been paid upon tea, the duty on sugar has amounted, on an average of three years, 1805–6–7, after deducting the drawbacks and bounties allowed on exportation, to £2,855,623 per annum. Admitting, therefore, which is a moderate computation, that one half of the sugar used in Great Britain is consumed with tea, it may be fairly stated that, immediately and remotely, the revenue is at present benefited by tea to the extent of £5,000,000 sterling per annum.

Such are the pecuniary advantages arising to the State from the tea trade, which, Raynal says, has contributed more to the sobriety of the British nation than the severest laws, the most eloquent harangues of Christian orators, or the best treatises of morality.

TURMERIC.

A small root, of an oblong form, usually met with in pieces of from half an inch, to an inch or two in length, and about an inch in circumference. Its surface is uneven and knotty, and the longer pieces are seldom straight. It is not easily cut through with a knife; heavy, hard to break, and of a glossy smooth surface when it is cut through. Its external colour is a whitish pale grey, with a faint yellowish tinge; internally, when broken, it is a fine bright, pale, unmixed yellow, when the root is fresh; by keeping, it becomes reddish, and at length is much like saffron in the cake. It speedily gives a fine yellow tinge to water, and the same colour to the spittle when chewed. It is easily powdered in the mortar; and according

to its age, makes either a yellow, an orange colour, or a reddish powder. It has a kind of aromatic ginger-like smell, and a warm, bitterish, disagreeable taste. Turmeric should be fresh, thick, heavy, and hard to be broken. This root is produced in China and Bengal; but the former is most valuable. Casks or cases are preferable to bags for packing, as the least damp depreciates its value.

The following are the quantities of turmeric imported and sold at the East India sales in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive; together with the sale amount, and average price per cwt.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.		Average per Cwt.
	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	Cwt.	£	£ s. d.
1804	7	10	547	1136	554	1146	2 1 5
1805	26	69	406	983	422	1052	2 9 10
1806	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
1807	382	783	678	1184	1060	1967	1 16 7
1808	669	1072	253	414	922	1486	1 12 3

16 cwt. of turmeric are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is £2 2s. per cwt. and the temporary or war duty 14s. making in the whole £2 16s. per cwt.

TURQUOISE,

Commonly called Turkey stone, is hard, opaque, and of a beautiful pale blue colour; it is of two kinds, the oriental and the occidental: they are found in the East Indies, Persia, and Germany. In Persia it adheres to blackish stones, and is very common, but it seldom exceeds the size of a hazel-nut. Those of the East Indies differ in their colour; for such as are said to be of the old rock, always preserve the same colour, but those of the new rock are greener. This stone is in so much esteem amongst the Turks, that those of the superior ranks are seldom without one. It is generally valued in proportion to the brightness of the colour. Those that are of the size of a hazel-nut, are of a fine sky blue without any blackish veins, but the lesser sort are not so good; those that have blackish veins, or are inclinable to greenish, or to the colour of milk, are of little value.

TUTENAGUE

Is a white metallic compound, somewhat like tin; the best is hard, compact, and heavy, very sonorous when struck, and pure and brilliant when broken. It is an article of considerable trade from China to various parts of India, in manufactured goods, and in blocks. The Dutch used to import large quantities into Holland—on an average of seven years, 1785 to 1791, 202,757 lbs. per annum. Tutenague should be chosen of a blueish white colour, considerably brighter than the best lead, of a close grain, and free from dross and impurities. In 1806, 1294 cwt. were sold at the East India sales for £2845.

20 cwt. of tutenague are reckoned to a ton.

VARNISH

Is prepared from a tree that grows plentifully in Japan and China. It is procured by wounding the stems of the trees when three years old. When first taken, it is of a lightish colour, and of the consistence of cream, but grows thicker and blacker on being exposed to the air. It is of so transparent a nature, that when it is laid pure and unmixed upon boxes, and other pieces of furniture, every vein may be clearly seen. For the most part a dark ground is spread underneath; it hardens to a transparency, will not endure any blows, but flies and cracks almost like glass, though it will stand boiling water without receiving any damage. It is an article of trade with the Chinese, but is not imported into Europe.

VERMILION

Is prepared from Cinnabar, and is imported from China in the form of powder, which should be chosen of a deep cochineal red, approaching to the greyish hue on steel, and leaving a most beautiful red on white paper. Reject that which is of a yellowish red, mixed with sandy matter, or otherwise impure.

The following is an account of the quantities of cinnabar and vermilion imported and sold at the East India sales, in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive, together with the sale amount, and average price per lb.

Years.	March Sale.		September Sale.		Total.		Aver. per lb.		
	lbs.	£	lbs.	£	lbs.	£	£	s.	d.
1804	—	—	—	—	—	—			
1805	—	—	2392	1516	2392	1516	0	12	7
1806	—	—	9770	3525	9770	3525	0	7	3
1807	—	—	12484	2816	12484	2816	0	4	6
1808	17050	3839	15381	2740	32431	6579	0	4	1

In the foregoing account is included the sale of a large quantity of vermilion exported from England to India, which not meeting a sale there, was forwarded to China, and from thence returned to England.

20 cwt. of vermilion are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty on vermilion and cinnabar is 1s. 3d. per lb. and the temporary or war duty 3d. making in the whole 1s. 6d. per lb.

ULTRAMARINE

Is prepared from Lapis Lazuli, by calcining and washing it clean; when genuine, it is an extremely bright blue colour, somewhat transparent both in and out of water. Ultramarine should be chosen of the most beautiful blue, well-ground, and not gritty. To ascertain if it be genuine, heat a little of it red hot on an iron; if its colour be not changed, it is good; if it be adulterated, there will be dark-coloured spots in it. Its principal use is in painting. It is imported from China occasionally. The only quantities imported and sold in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive, were in March sale, 1804, 433 ounces, which sold for £97; and in the September sale of the same year, 3424 ounces sold for £322.

UNICORNS' HORNS.

What is commonly called the unicorn's horn is the horn of the narwal, or sea unicorn. They are from 5 to 7 feet long, some more; very sharp pointed, running taper all along, twisted or wreathed, of the colour of ivory, but of a much closer and finer grain, and very white within. The larger and whiter they are, the more they are esteemed.

Thunberg states that the Japanese have an extraordinary opinion of its medical virtues, and powers to prolong life, fortify the animal spirits, assist the memory, and cure all complaints. This article of commerce has not been known to the Dutch till of late, when it was discovered by an accident. One of the Dutch Chiefs, on his return to Europe, sent, among other rarities, to a friend, who was an interpreter, a large, handsome, twisted Greenland unicorn's horn, by the sale of which this interpreter became extremely rich, and a man of consequence. From that time the Dutch have written to Europe for as many horns as they could get, and made great profit on them at Japan. At first each catty was sold for 100 cobangs, or 600 rix-dollars; after which the price fell by degrees to 70, 50, and 30 cobangs,

smuggling has ceased, the price has been from 130 to 140 rix-dollars, at the rate of 1 mace of Japan silver for 8 mace 5 candareens of unicorns' horns.

These horns were formerly considered of great value in Europe. In 1553 one was brought to the King of France, valued at £20,000. That which was presented to King Charles I. is supposed to be one of the largest ever seen; it was 7 feet long, weighed 13 lbs. and was in the shape of a wax candle, but writhed within itself in spires, hollow about a foot from its root, growing taper gradually towards the point, of a polished smoothness, and the colour not perfectly white, but rather obscure.

WANGHEES,

Sometimes called Japan canes, should be chosen pliable, tough, round, and taper, the knots at a regular distance from each other, and the nearer the knots are to each other, the more they are esteemed: those with crooked heads, if straight and regularly tapered, are always in request. Such as are dark coloured, badly glazed, and light, should be rejected.

The following are the only quantities imported and sold in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive:

1805.....September sale.....34,867 sold for	£1334	1806.....September sale.....74,060 sold for	£999
1806.....March sale .....60,500 ditto.....	324	1807.....September sale.....18,533 ditto.....	212

6000 wanghees are allowed to a ton. The permanent duty is £2 10s. per 1000, and the temporary or war duty 16s. 8d. making in the whole £3 6s. 8d. per 1000.

There are a few trifling articles, exclusive of those already enumerated, which are occasionally imported by individuals; but they are included in the Company's sales under the head of sundries, being of too small an amount to require specification. The commerce in drugs has been at all times too trifling in extent, and too precarious in their issue, to attract any considerable share of the Company's attention; they therefore formed the basis of that portion of the trade which from the earliest periods have been granted as an indulgence to the commanders and officers of the Company's ships, and which they looked to as the principal source of reward for their professional labours. Since the renewal of the Company's charter in 1793, the private merchants have so materially interfered with those drugs which are the produce of India, that the commanders and officers have been in a great measure compelled to withdraw from the trade. The permission granted to Indian-built shipping at various periods to import goods from India on private account, brought such immense quantities of drugs into the market, that the price was so much depreciated, as to occasion great loss to the importers; in many instances there were sufficient imported in one year for the consumption of Europe for five or six years. The demand for these commodities at home is inconsiderable; they are chiefly imported for the supply of the Continent. The following is the sale value of the various articles classed under the head of drugs, which have been imported and sold at the Company's sales in the years 1804 to 1808 inclusive:

1804.....March Sale..	£89,610	..September Sale	£53,409 ..... Total £143,019
1805.....	106,695	.....	152,134 258,829
1806.....	47,812	.....	70,649 118,461
1807.....	94,601	.....	57,895 152,496
1808.....	46,192	.....	72,679 118,871

The above amount includes all commodities imported, except tea, spices, coffee, indigo, piece-goods, raw silk, pepper, and sugar.

During the above period the prices of the various commodities have experienced great fluctuations, and many have been sold at any prices that could be obtained, the period for their remaining in the warehouses having expired, at which time, if they had not been previously exported, they would have been subject to the home consumption duty, which in many instances is far beyond their value.

The ports to the N.E. of Canton which have been visited at any period by Europeans, are Amoy, Chinchew, the Chusan Islands, Ningpo or Liampo, and Naukin.

AMOY.—This harbour is in latitude about 24° 30′ North, and is formed between the island of Amoy and the main. It is very safe, being sheltered from all winds. It was formerly frequented by Europeans; but an edict of the Emperor having restricted all foreigners to the port of Canton, it has not been frequented by them since that period.

In 1676 a ship was dispatched from England to Amoy, with a view of establishing a factory there, in which they succeeded: but the trade was obstructed by the civil wars which then raged in China. In 1680 the Tartars drove the Chinese from Amoy, and destroyed the Company's factory, their servants escaping to Tonquin and Bantam. In 1684 the Tartar General permitted the factory to be re-established. In the following year the Company's Residents there observed that, "having had five months' experience, of the nature and quality of these people, they can characterize them no otherwise than as devils in men's shapes;" and they stated, "that to remain exposed to the rapaciousness of the avaricious Governors, was considered as more detrimental than the trade would be beneficial." The factory was, however, continued, till the Emperor's edict for confining the trade to Canton, compelled them to withdraw.

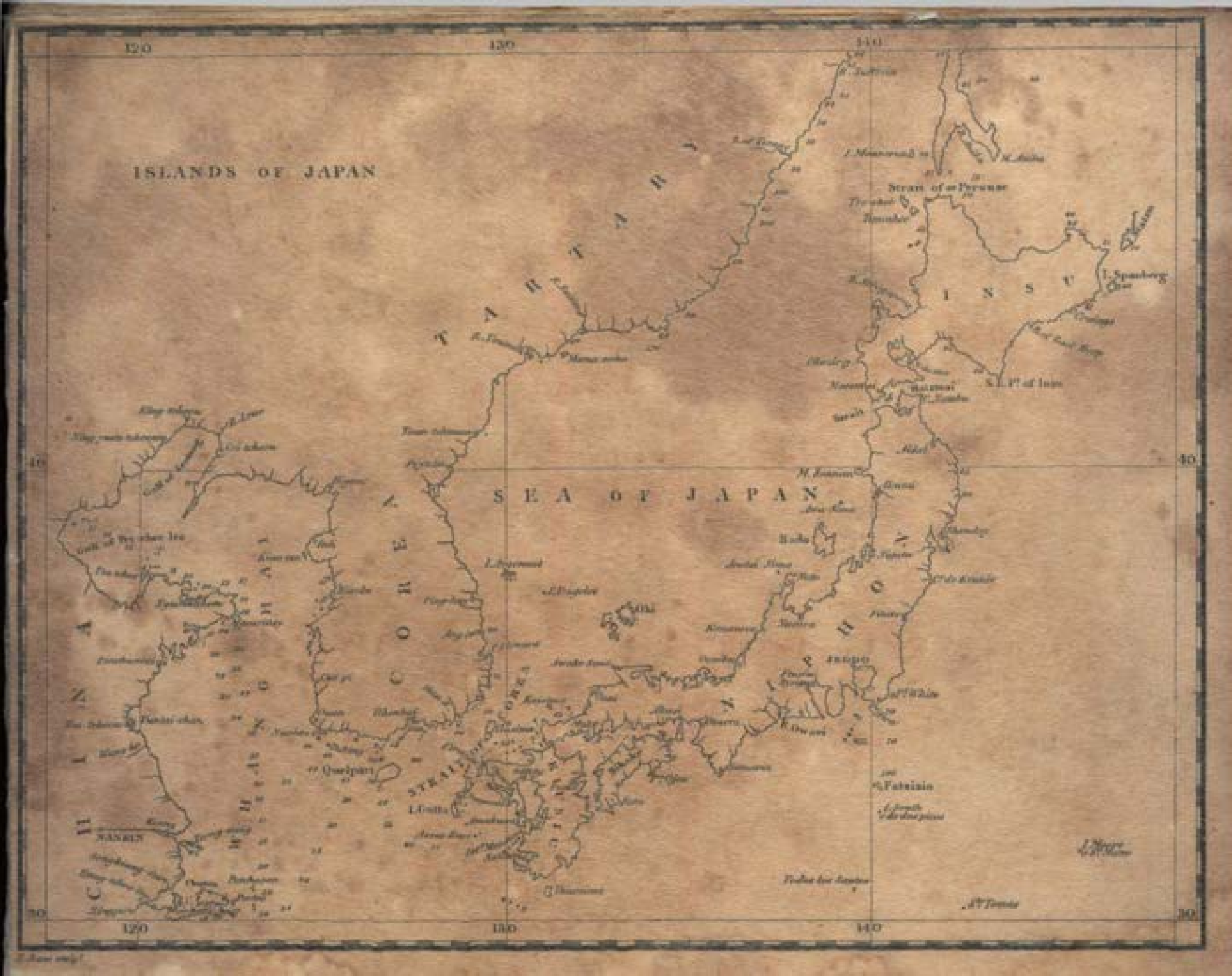
CHINCHEW is in latitude about 24° 54′ North, and longitude 118° 40′ East. The harbour and town are situated at the bottom of the bay on the western side. The harbour is covered from the bay by a point of land, having on it a large square pagoda. Within this point may be seen the numerous masts of the junks frequenting the port, which is a place of considerable trade. Here is manufactured the best sugar-candy in China.

CHUSAN.—This harbour is in latitude about 30° 26′ North, and longitude 121° 41′ East; it stands near the S.W. end of the island of Chusan, which is about nine leagues long, and five broad, and gives its name to an extensive Archipelago: it is about three leagues from the main land. The harbour is very safe and convenient, where large ships may ride within a cable's length of the shore. The town is about three quarters of a mile from the shore, surrounded with a fine stone wall, about three miles in circumference, mounted with 22 square bastions, placed at irregular distances, having four great gates, on which are planted a few old iron guns. The houses are but meanly built. Here the Governor of the island resides, and about 4,000 inhabitants, mostly soldiers and fishermen.

In 1700 the English first visited Chusan, and were received in a friendly manner by the Governor; but they experienced great difficulty in obtaining permission to land goods, or to trade: and in the following year an order arrived from the Emperor to quit the port, which they were compelled to do, by which the Company experienced a very severe loss.

NINGPO, or Liampo River, is nine leagues to the westward of Chusan. Here the English once had a factory: but the oppressions their trade was subject to, compelled them to abandon it.

NANKIN is situated on the river Kiang, in latitude about 32° 5′ North, and longitude 119° East; it is a place of very great trade, being one of the largest cities in the Chinese empire. The river is about a mile wide at the city, and is navigable for vessels of considerable burthen. The articles manufactured here, are in general very superior to those of the other parts of the empire, particularly China-ware, and various kinds of silk-goods, the raw silk being of the best kind.


ISLANDS OF JAPAN
TARTARY
SEA OF JAPAN
CORE
NIPHON
JEDDO
Strait of Perouse
I. Spanberg
S.E. Pt. of Insu
Fatsizio
Quelpart
NANKIN
120
130
140
40
30

CHAPTER XXIX.

Japan.

Island of Formosa—Patchow Islands—Liquejo Islands—Japan Archipelago—Nangasacki; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Commerce of the Portuguese with Japan—Attempts of the English to open a Trade with Japan—Commerce of the Chinese with Japan—Attempt of the Russians to open a Trade with Japan—Dutch Commerce with Japan—Imports and Exports—Mode of conducting the Commerce—Port Regulations, Orders, &c.—Prohibited Goods—Import and Export Duties.

OPPOSITE the coast of China are many islands running in a north-easterly direction towards the Japanese Archipelago, the principal of which are Formosa, and two groups of small islands, the Patchow and the Liquejo Islands.

FORMOSA.

This island is about 70 leagues in length, extending nearly N.N.E. and S.S.W. The southern part has on it a high double-peaked mountain, discernible at 20 leagues distance in clear weather; from this the land slopes down, terminating in a low projecting point, called the South Cape, or S.E. point of Formosa. This point is situated in latitude 21°54 North, and longitude 121°5 East. About 25 leagues to the N.W. is Tywan, where the Dutch had formerly a considerable fort, from which they were expelled by the Chinese. The English also made some unsuccessful attempts to form an establishment here.

PATCHOW ISLANDS.

These are the westernmost of the two groups, being nearest to Formosa. The southernmost is in latitude 24° 6 North, and longitude 123° 52 East. The eastern extremity is formed by Typinsan, a large island, having on its north side an extensive reef, on which the Providence, Captain Broughton, was wrecked in 1797, in latitude 25° 6 North, and longitude 125° 11 East. These islands are tributary to the Great Liquejo. After the loss of the Providence, her commander and crew were treated with great hospitality by the inhabitants of Typinsan, who supplied the schooner with water and refreshments, to carry them to Macao.

LIQUEJO ISLANDS.

This group extends in a N. N. E. and S. S. W. direction. The south end of the largest island is in latitude 26° 3 North, and longitude 128° 18 East. It is of considerable size, and well-inhabited; and there are a number of junks which carry on a trade with Amoy and with Japan.

The Liquejo Islands are subject to Japan, to whom they pay an annual tribute. The inhabitants, however, are treated in their trade like the Chinese frequenting Japan, and are compelled to trade only at Satzuma, and not to frequent any other port. The import and sale of their goods are also limited to a yearly sum of 125,000 tales, beyond which nothing should be sold; they, however, dispose of goods to a much larger extent, through the connivance of the Japanese directors of their trade. The goods imported by them into Japan, are silk and other stuffs, and various Chinese commodities brought in their own junks from China, some rice and other grain, pearl shells, and cowries.

The empire of Japan consists of three large, and many small islands The names of the former are Niphon, Ximo, and Xicoco. There are five chief maritime or trading towns in the empire—Meaco, Jeddo, Osacca, Sakai, and Nangasacki: the four first are upon the great Island Niphon, and the other on the S.W. extremity of the island Ximo.

NANGASACKI,

The sole port in the empire into which the Dutch, the only European nation suffered to trade with Japan, are admitted, is situated near the S.W. extreme of the island Ximo, in latitude about 32° 48 North, and longitude 130° 12 East. The harbour is about three miles long, and one broad; it extends north and south, and has a muddy bottom, where ships lay in 5 or 6 fathoms, within gun-shot of the factory, and the town of Nangasacki, at the head of the harbour.

The island of Dezima is let by the inhabitants to the Dutch Company, and is considered merely as a street belonging to the town: the inhabitants therefore build all the dwelling-houses, and keep them in repair. The island is joined to the town and main land, and at low water is separated from it only by a ditch: at high water it becomes an island, which has a communication with the town by means of a bridge. At the entrance from the bridge there is a large stone pillar, upon which hang on several tables the Emperor's edicts for the regulation of the Dutch trade. The size of this island is very inconsiderable, it being about 600 feet in length, and 120 in breadth: it is planked in on all sides, and has two gates, the one towards the town near the bridge, and the other towards the water-side. The latter gate is opened on such days only as the Dutch ships are discharging or taking in their cargoes: the other is always guarded in the daytime by the Japanese, and locked at night. Near it also is a guard-house, where those that go in and out of the town are searched. Lengthways upon this island are built, in form of a small town, the Dutch Company's several storehouses, their hospital, and separate houses for their servants, two stories high, of which the upper part is inhabited, and the lower used as store and lumber rooms. Between these houses run two streets, which are intersected in the middle by another. Excepting the Dutch large and fire-proof storehouses, the houses are all built of wood and clay, covered with tiles, and having paper windows and floor-mats of straw. By the sea-gate is kept in readiness every kind of apparatus for the prevention of fire, and at the other end are a pleasure and kitchen garden, and a large summer-house. For the purpose of keeping a vigilant eye over the Dutch, several Japanese officers, interpreters, and guards are kept on the island. There are watch-houses built in three corners of it, in which watch is kept during the time that the ships lie in the harbour. The interpreters have a large house on the island, called their College; there

is also another house for the Ottonas, or reporting officers, whose business it is to take notice of every occurrence that arises on the island, and to inform the Governor of Nangasacki of it. Within this small compass the Dutch are compelled to pass their time during their stay in Japan.

The town of Nangasacki is situated at the head of the harbour, and is destitute of walls or fortifications. The streets are neither straight nor wide. Three small rivulets run through the town, which is divided into the inner and outer town, the former of which contains 26, and the latter 61 streets, in none of which strangers are suffered to dwell; they have particular suburbs allowed to them, where they are narrowly watched. The houses are low and mean, though well inhabited with merchants and artificers.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Coins.—Accounts are kept in tales, mace, and candareens; 10 candareens make 1 mace, and 10 mace 1 tale. The gold coins current are the new and old itjib, and cobangs or kobangs; the silver coins are the nandiogin, itaganne, and kodama. They are in general very simple, struck plain and unadorned, the greater part of them without any rim round the margin, and most of them without any determined value. For this reason they are always weighed by the merchants, who put their chop or stamp upon them, to signify that the coin is standard weight, and unadulterated.

The new cobangs are oblong, rounded at the ends, and flat, about two inches long, and rather more than 2 inches broad, scarcely thicker than an English farthing, of a pale yellow colour; the die on one side consists of several cross lines stamped, and at both ends there is a parallelogrammical figure with raised letters on it, and, besides, a moonlike figure, with a flower on it in relief. On the other side is a circular stamp with raised letters on it, and within the margin towards one end, two smaller sunk stamps with raised letters, which are different on each cobang; these are valued at 60 mace, or 6 rix-dollars. There are old cobangs occasionally met with, which are of fine gold, somewhat broader than the new, and are worth 10 rix-dollars.

The itjib is called by the Dutch golden bean, and is made of pale gold, of a parallelogrammical figure, and flat, rather thicker than a farthing, with many raised letters on one side, and two figures or flowers in relief on the other; the value of this is one-fourth of a cobang. There are old itjibs also to be met with; these are thicker than the new ones, and in value 22 mace 5 candareens.

Nandiogin is a parallelogrammical flat silver coin, of twice the thickness of a halfpenny, one inch long, and half an inch broad, and formed of fine silver. The edge is stamped with stars, and within the edges are raised dots. One side is marked all over with raised letters, and the other on its lower and larger moiety is filled with raised letters, and at the same time exhibits a double moonlike figure. Its value is 7 mace 5 candareens.

Itaganne and kodama are denominations by which various lumps of silver, without form or fashion, are known, which are neither of the same size, shape, or value. The former of these, however, are oblong, and the latter roundish, for the most part thick, but sometimes, though seldom, flat. These pass in trade, but are always weighed in payment from one individual to another, and have a dull leaden appearance.

Seni is a denomination applied to pieces of copper, brass, and iron coin, which bear a near resemblance to our farthings. They differ in size, value, and external appearance, but are always cast, and have a square hole in the middle, by means of which they may be strung together; and likewise have always broad edges. Of these are current, ijunion seni, which pass for half a mace, or 10 common seni. Simoni seni, of the value of four common seni, are made of brass, and are almost as broad as a halfpenny, but thin. The common seni are the size of a farthing, and made of red copper; 60 of them make a mace. Doom seni is a cast iron coin, in appearance like the last, of the same size and value, but so brittle, that it is easily broken by the hand, or breaks in pieces when let fall on the ground.

The seni are strung 100 at a time, or, as is most commonly the case, 96 on a rush. The coins in one of these parcels are seldom all of one sort, but generally consist of two, three, or more different kinds; in this case, the larger sorts are strung on first, and then follow the smaller; the number diminishing in proportion to the number of large pieces in the parcel, which are of greater value than the smaller.

Weights.—These are the candareen, mace, tale, catty, and pecul, thus divided:

10 candareens	make	1 mace.
10 mace		1 tale.
16 tales		1 catty.
100 catties		1 pecul.

The pecul is 125 Dutch pounds, which are equal to 133⅓ lbs. avoirdupois.

Measures.—The revenues of Japan are estimated by two measures of rice, the man and kokf; the former contains 10,000 kokfs, each 3000 bales, or bags of rice.

The long measure is the inc, which is about 4 China cubits; and 2½ Japanese leagues are computed to be about 1 Dutch league.

COMMERCE OF THE PORTUGUESE WITH JAPAN.

Japan was first visited by the Portuguese in 1542, who were well received. In the course of a few years they sent several Jesuits, who converted multitudes of the natives to Christianity. In 1549 a Japanese nobleman was baptized at Goa, who gave the Portuguese great insight into the advantages which they might reap in Japan, both with respect to commerce and the propagation of the Christian religion. The Portuguese enjoyed the most unlimited freedom, with liberty to travel over the whole country, to trade and to preach. Their commerce proved very lucrative, and the work of conversion made such a rapid progress, that many of the Princes of the empire embraced the Christian religion, which induced the Portuguese to come over in great numbers, marry, and settle in different parts of the country. In 1582 the Catholic religion was in such esteem here, that a Japanese embassy was sent to Rome, with letters and valuable presents. The immense profits, however, derived from the commerce soon filled the Portuguese with pride, and their avarice and haughtiness proved their ruin. In proportion as their riches and credit increased, they became insupportable to the Japanese, and were at length detested to such a degree, that in the year 1586 a decree was issued for the extermination of the Christians; in consequence of which, heavy persecutions were commenced against them, and in the year 1590 only, upwards of 20,000 of them were put to death. Notwithstanding all this, numbers of the Japanese daily became proselytes; so that in the years 1591 and 1592 not less than 12,000 were converted and baptized. Even the Emperor himself professed Christianity, together with his Court and army; in consequence of which, the Portuguese gave greater scope to their haughtiness and ambition, and in 1596, by behaving with unwarrantable rudeness to a Prince of the empire, they accelerated their final ruin, giving at the same time a decisive blow to their lucrative commerce, as well as to the propagation of the Christian religion. Hence arose a new persecution against the Christians; and a conspiracy was at this time discovered, which the Portuguese had set on foot against the Emperor, with an intent to dethrone him. The actual existence of this conspiracy being fully authenticated, the Japanese Government came to the final determination to banish all Christians from the empire who should refuse to abjure the Catholic faith, or else to put them all to death without quarter. This persecution was accordingly commenced, and carried on without intermission for the space of 40 years, when it ended in the total eradication of the Christian religion, together with the final overthrow of the trade carried on by the Portuguese. The

Japanese took the most effectual means to prevent the Christian religion from being ever re-established in their dominions; and the Portuguese, by a proclamation in 1639, received the strictest injunctions, under the severest penalties, never to approach the coasts of Japan any more.

Soon after this decree, two ships arrived at Nangasacki from Macao, when it was instantly notified to them, that the Emperor of Japan had totally prohibited all commerce with the Portuguese; and they had also a copy of the Emperor's edict, which they were directed to make public at Macao, and to inform the inhabitants of that city, that they were the last ships that should ever be suffered to anchor in any port of Japan; and that if ever they came thither again, they should be treated as enemies, and put to death without mercy. On their return to Macao the whole city was in consternation, convinced that the loss of the Japan trade would prove their ruin; to prevent which, they agreed to send a solemn embassy, to induce the Emperor to recall his edict, or so to qualify it, that they might on certain terms be permitted to send ships thither.

The ship that carried the ambassadors, arrived at Naugasacki July 9th, 1640, and sent an account to the Japanese Government of the nature of their commission. The ship was immediately seized, and the ambassadors and all who belonged to them, except eight negro seamen, were imprisoned till the Emperor's pleasure should be known. On the return of the courier, they were summoned before the magistrates, who demanded what it was that could induce them, after so fair a warning had been given them, to return, in direct breach of the Emperor's edict. They stated they were not come as traders, but in the characters of ambassadors, which had always by all nations been esteemed sacred. They were told that this excuse would not be admitted, and that they had incurred the penalty of the edict; when they were conducted back to prison. Next day the ambassadors and all their attendants, to the number of 74 persons, were put to death, except 13, and their property burnt. After the execution, the magistrates sent for the survivors; and having asked them if they had seen their ship burnt, enquired of them whether they would faithfully report at Macao what they were commanded by the Emperor to say in his behalf? Being answered in the affirmative, they proceeded thus:—"You are then to inform your fellow-citizens, that henceforth the subjects of Japan will not receive either money, merchandise, or presents from them: you see we have burnt the very clothes of those who were executed. Let your people use any of ours that fall into their hands in the same manner; we consent to it, and desire that you will think of us no more than if there were not such a nation as the Japanese in the world."—They were then shewn the heads of the ambassadors and the others on poles, and a large chest containing the bodies, with a long inscription ending with these words: "All this is set forth as a memorial of what is past, and as an advertisement for the time to come. Henceforward, so long as the sun shall shine upon the earth, let not any Christian be so hardy as to set his foot in Japan. And be it known to all the world, that if King Philip in person, the God of the Christians, or the Great Xaca (one of the first deities of Japan) shall presume to break this ordinance, he shall pay for it with his head." They then gave them a small vessel, in which they proceeded to Macao.

The Portuguese, having become independent of Spain, made another attempt in 1646 to restore a good understanding with the Japanese, and sent an ambassador, who was admitted, and an express sent to Court, announcing his arrival. The Emperor's answer soon arrived, importing that the object of their mission could not be granted, but that they had free liberty to depart.

In 1685 a favourable opportunity offered, which the Portuguese availed themselves of. A Japanese vessel in a storm was driven on the coast of Macao, where the people were kindly received, and entertained at the public expence till they had recovered from the hardships they had endured at sea; they were then put on board one of the best vessels at Macao, which proceeded with them to Nangasacki. On their arrival in the roads, they sent the Japanese on shore, and received a message from the magistrates,

that they were obliged to them for their kind and generous behaviour, but that for the future it would be in vain to endeavour to obtain any alteration in the decree against them. Since that period it does not appear that any attempts have been made by the Portuguese to open a communication with Japan.

A few days after the Japanese new year's day, the horrid ceremony is performed of trampling on such images as represent the cross and the Virgin Mary with the child. These images, which are made of cast copper, are said to be about 12 inches in length. This ceremony is performed for the purpose of imprinting on every one an abhorrence and hatred of the Christian doctrine, and of the Portuguese. The trampling is performed in such places as are found most frequented by the Christians. In the town of Nangasacki it continues for the space of four days, after which period the images are carried to the adjacent places, and at last are laid by till the following year. Every one, except the Governor and his train, even the smallest child, is obliged to be present at this ceremony; but that the Dutch, as some have insinuated, are obliged to trample on these images, is not true. At every place overseers are present, who assemble the people by rotation in certain houses, calling every one by his name in due order, and seeing that every thing is performed. Adults walk over the images from one side to the other, and children in arms are put with their feet upon them.

ATTEMPTS OF THE ENGLISH TO OPEN A TRADE WITH JAPAN.

Japan was first visited by the English in 1610. Captain Saris, who commanded one of the East India Company's ships, went to Firando, where he was favourably received. From thence he proceeded by land to the Emperor's residence; and delivering a letter and presents from King James, was not only graciously received, but successful in obtaining a grant for the Company, of the following important privileges, together with letters and presents to the King of England:

I. We give free licence to the subjects of England, viz. Sir T. Smythe, Governor, &c. for ever, safely to come to any port of our empire of Japan, with their ships and merchandises, without any hindrance to them or their goods; and to reside, buy, sell, and barter after their own manner with all nations, to stay here, or go at their pleasure.

II. We grant them freedom of custom for all merchandise, as either now they have brought, or hereafter shall bring into our kingdom, or shall from hence transport to any foreign port. And we do authorize those ships that hereafter shall arrive from England, to proceed to present sale of their commodities, without the expence or trouble of sending up to Court.

III. If any of their ships shall happen to be in danger of shipwreck, we do strictly enjoin our subjects not only to assist them, but to return such part of the ship and goods as shall be saved, to the Captain, merchants, or their assignees. And we do decree that they may build one or more houses for their own use in any part of our empire, and at their departure make sale of it.

IV. If any of the English merchants or others shall depart this life within our dominions, the goods of the deceased shall remain at the disposal of the British factors. We ordain likewise that all delinquents be punished by their own magistrates, and according to their own laws, without appeal to the civil power of the nation, which has no power over their persons or goods.

V. We will that our subjects trading with them for any of their commodities, pay them for the same, according to agreement, without delay, or return the commodity so bought.

VI. For such commodities as they now have brought, or shall hereafter bring, fitting for our service and proper use, we will that no arrest be made thereof, but that the price be settled with the Company's factor, according as they sell to others, and immediate payment made upon delivery of the goods.

VII. If, in discovery of other countries for trade, and return of their ships, they shall need men or victuals, it is our pleasure that our subjects furnish them for their money, as their occasions shall require.

VIII. And that without other passport, they shall and may set out upon the discovery of Yendzo, or any other part in or about our empire.

In consequence of this grant, a factory was established; but the prospect of the sale of English goods appeared uncertain; and it was soon found that unless the Company could open a direct trade with the Chinese empire, the Japan trade ought to be abandoned, as the articles suitable to the market were India and China manufactures, silks and raw silks, spices, drugs, sandal-wood, hides, &c. with a very small proportion of European commodities.

In 1619 the Company's factory was removed to Nangasacki; but it was found so expensive and unprofitable, from their having been disappointed in their attempts to form connexions with China, and in their expectations of vending woollens and other British goods in exchange for silver, of which article the Portuguese and Dutch annually drew from Japan large quantities, that in 1623 it was withdrawn.

In 1673 an attempt was made to revive the trade with Japan. A ship was dispatched from England, with letters and presents for the Emperor, which, after touching at Bantam for produce and instructions, proceeded to Nangasacki, where she arrived June 29, 1673. England was at this time at war with Holland. The chief factor on board intimated to the Governor of the port, that he had come to renew the ancient trade between Japan and England, which had been interrupted for 49 years; and was answered that, in the first place, he must deliver up his guns and ammunition till the Emperor's pleasure could be known. After complying with this hazardous condition, and undergoing the strictest examination respecting the causes of the interruption of the trade, (the civil wars in England and two successive wars with the Dutch), he was at last informed that no trade would be allowed by the Emperor to a people so nearly allied to the Portuguese, as the King of England had been married to a Princess of that country; and though it was explained that this circumstance did not alter the character of the English nation, who were Protestants as well as the Dutch, this explanation was doubted, from the circumstance of the English flag having the St. George's Cross on it, which was considered as resembling the Portuguese flag. After, therefore, being permitted to remain at Nangasacki, but not to trade, till the monsoon changed, and the wind became favourable for his departure, though several Dutch ships had arrived with intelligence of the war, the guns and ammunition were redelivered, and the ship, attended by the Japanese boats out of the harbour, allowed to depart on the 28th of August, 1673, under assurances that the Dutch ships should not be permitted to follow her for two months, that she might have time to reach Bantam unmolested by them.

Another attempt was made in 1681, which proved abortive, as did a similar one in 1683. The Emperor was not only inflexible in his determination to have no commercial intercourse with England, but he even prohibited the importation of British woollens by his own subjects from Bantam, and other places in the South Seas.

Notwithstanding these repeated disappointments, the Company were not totally discouraged; they determined to make another attempt; and in a letter to Madras on the 11th of September, 1689, they wrote to the following purport:—"Being now at peace with the Dutch, and our King being their Stadtholder, it may not be prudent to attempt the spice-trade; but we see no reason why, the King and Queen being now both Protestants, you should not make another attempt at Japan, as it can be turned into a China voyage, if you are disappointed. This we recommend to your consideration, in regard that the only reason they give for disappointing our last attempt was, that our Queen was then a Papist and a Portuguese." This attempt in like manner also failed. Seeing then that the Emperor was so firm in his resolution, not to admit the English in trading intercourse with his dominions, and the Company having expended upwards of £50,000 in pursuit of the object, it was at length finally abandoned.

In 1782 a proposal was made to the East India Company for reviving their trade to Japan, by a

person who appeared to have been well acquainted with the nature of the trade. He delivered a plan for that purpose, accompanied with particulars necessary for a cargo outwards, and the articles which might probably be received from Japan in return, of which the following is a copy:—

"A good new ship, or one in thorough repair, of about 800 tons, 200 of which will be sufficient to stow the following merchandises from Europe, the price wherein is estimated at about £7000 sterling.

Inunu Cornu Marinum.	Mumia.	Saffron.
Broad cloth of different colours.	Lead and pewter.	Tortoise-shell, if any of the proper quality can be had here.
	Quicksilver.	

"One thousand pounds sterling should also be allowed for European curiosities, to make presents of.

"The goods to be shipped from the Company's settlements in India must be as follow:

Armozeens of all colours.	Ginghams.	Powder sugar.
Bengal silks.	Guinese.	Rattans.
Camphire.	Pepper.	Salempores.
Elephants' teeth.	Portyock.	Taffachelas.

"Which cargo from Europe and India will together amount to about £26,000 sterling. The Company will receive in return from Japan, to be delivered at Bengal or the Coast of Coromandel, the following articles:—Copper refined, 7500 peculs, each 133⅓ lbs. avoirdupois, and 700 peculs of camphire; this clear of all expences for loading and unloading, living in the country, &c."—It was added that a regular establishment was necessary, and that the success of the enterprise depended altogether on a Chief who was well acquainted with the customs and manners of the Japanese.

From the above period we have no account of any ship under English colours attempting a trade to Japan till 1803, when the Frederic, a country ship from Calcutta, having a cargo suitable to the market, touched at Nangasacki, with the view of opening a trade. This was not permitted; and the ship, after being allowed a few days to refresh, proceeded to the Liquejo Islands, where she was equally unfortunate, although it had been supposed that the inhabitants of those islands were inclined to trade with foreign ships.

COMMERCE WITH CHINA.

The Chinese have almost from time immemorial traded to Japan, and are the only people in Asia that have engaged in the trade, or that are allowed to visit the empire. Formerly they proceeded to Osacca harbour, although it is very dangerous, on account of rocks and shoals. The Portuguese shewed them the way to Nangasacki. At first the annual number of their vessels amounted to upwards of one hundred. The liberty which they then enjoyed, is at present greatly contracted, since they have been suspected by the Japanese of favouring the Catholic missionaries at China, and have made attempts to introduce into Japan Catholic books printed in China. They are therefore as much suspected and as hardly used as the Dutch. They are also shut up in a small island, and strictly searched whenever they go in or come out.

When a vessel arrives from China, all the crew are brought on shore, and all charge of the vessel is taken from them till such time as every thing is ready for their departure; consequently, the Japanese unload it entirely, and afterwards bring the vessel on shore, where at low water it lies quite dry. The next year it is loaded with other goods.

The Chinese are not suffered to go to the Imperial Court, which saves them considerable sums in presents and expences. They are allowed to trade for twice as large a sum as that granted to the Dutch; but as their voyages are neither so long nor so dangerous, they are obliged to contribute more largely to the town of Nangasacki, and therefore pay more, as far even as 60 per cent. fannagin, or flower money.

Their merchandise is sold at three different times in the year, and is brought in 70 junks. The first fair takes place in the spring, for the cargoes of 20 vessels; the second in the summer, for the cargoes of 30 vessels; and the third in autumn, for the cargoes of the remaining 20. Should any more vessels arrive within the year, they are obliged to return without being allowed to unload the least article. Although their voyages are less expensive than the Dutch, and they are not under the necessity of sending an ambassador to the Emperor, nor any director over their commerce, but interpreters, a guard, and supervisors are appointed to them, the same as the Dutch; yet, on account of the greater value per cent. deducted from their merchandise, their profits are less than those of the Dutch: and as they are no longer allowed to carry away any specie, they are obliged to purchase Japanese commodities for exportation, such as copper, lackered ware, &c. many of which are produced in their own country.

When their vessels are loaded, and ready for sailing, they are conducted by a number of Japanese guard-ships, not only out of the harbour, but likewise a great way out to sea, in order to prevent their disposing to the smugglers of any of the unsold wares that they may have been obliged to carry back.

A considerable part of the Chinese commerce is carried on with Siam, Cambodia, and Cochin-China.

ATTEMPT OF THE RUSSIANS TO TRADE WITH JAPAN.

The Russians recently fitted out an expedition, the principal object of which was to establish commercial relations between Japan and Russia, but it failed. The commander, Krusenstern, states, "the Emperor of Japan caused it to be notified to the commissioners whom I carried, that his subjects traded only with the Dutch and Chinese. As to the Russians, he begged them to return to their own country, and, if they valued their lives, never to come back."

DUTCH COMMERCE WITH JAPAN.

The Dutch, allured by the advantageous and profitable trade carried on by the Portuguese with Japan, resolved likewise to extend their navigation to these remote parts of the world, about the year 1600. The first factory they had in Japan was built at Firando, and they had liberty of a free commerce granted them by the Emperor, and leave to import and dispose of their goods in all parts of his dominions; and being about this time at war with Spain, to which country Portugal was united, they exerted themselves to supplant the Portuguese, and to ruin their trade. On the Portuguese being expelled, the Dutch gave assurances to the Emperor that they would in future supply his country with such commodities as had been formerly imported by the Portuguese. They were soon after expelled from Firando, and Nangasacki declared the only port to which either the Dutch or Chinese were to be admitted.

The Dutch trade has been subject to various changes and fatalities with regard to the commodities which were from time to time forbidden to be imported or exported, to the gradual restriction of their liberties and privileges, and to the lessening their profits.

The first and most prosperous period of their trade was from their first settlement at Firando, till they were ordered to remove their factory to Nangasacki. They then sold their imports free, and without restraint to the best bidder, and exported annually to the amount of 6,000,000 guilders, or upwards of £500,000 sterling. This brought in immense profits. The principal article of export was silver, of which from 1200 to 1400 chests were annually sent to Batavia, amounting to 1,400,000 tales, or upwards of £450,000 sterling.

On the Dutch factory being fixed at Nangasacki, they were deprived at once of the privileges they had formerly enjoyed. The ships, on their arrival in the roads, were taken possession of by the Japanese, the arms and ammunition taken out and landed, and the rudder unhung. All who went on shore were strictly searched; the ships were unladen, and the cargoes brought on shore by the Japanese, and locked up in warehouses under their seals. Notwithstanding the numerous and sudden restrictions imposed upon

the Dutch commanders, they annually disposed of the cargoes of 6 or 7 ships to a great advantage. In the year 1641 they disposed of goods to the amount of 8,000,000 florins, and exported no less than 1400 chests of silver. The exportation of copper had been prohibited in 1637; but on a petition to the Court, it was again granted; and they were forbid taking silver, which was a great improvement to the Dutch commerce, as they obtained an immense profit on the Japan copper, which they sent to their settlements in India; and upon silver they seldom obtained an advantage of more than 5 per cent.

In 1672, in consequence of some offence given to the Emperor's ministers, the Dutch commerce was reduced to the following conditions. The Governor of Nangasacki demanded samples and patterns of the goods imported, in order to shew them to the merchants; who having resolved what they intended to purchase, and at what price, the Governor, without permitting the Dutch to be present, agreed with the merchants; and if the prices offered were not satisfactory, they were permitted to export them again. By this mode of proceeding, the price set upon the commodities imported, was reduced every year, and the Dutch were necessitated rather to part with them at a small profit, than to export them again. They were also obliged to take the cobang, which they had hitherto taken for 60 mace, for 68 mace; what was gained by this mode of dealing, was stated to be assigned for the use and benefit of the town.

The Dutch, in consequence of these grievances, forwarded a petition to the Emperor, to which they received a favourable answer, containing in substance that the trade should be restored to its former footing; notwithstanding which, the Governor of Nangasacki having represented to the Court how prejudicial this renewal of the Dutch privileges was to the natives, it was resolved that they should have leave to import what goods, and to what quantity they pleased, but to be so far restrained in the sale, as not to exceed the sum of 300,000 tales a year, and that the goods not disposed of, should be laid up in warehouses against the next year's sale. The Company's officers were also limited to 40,000 tales, which is divided between the residents and the commanders and officers of the ships.

It is an ancient custom in Japan for all the nobility to go to Court once a year, to pay their respects to the Emperor, and to make presents proportionable to their quality and wealth. The Dutch, when they came to settle in Japan, conformed themselves to this custom, as did also in their time the Portuguese. The Resident of the Dutch East India Company, for the time being, makes this journey, accompanied with a surgeon and one or two secretaries, and attended by numerous Japanese, appointed by the Governor of Nangasacki, to prevent their having any communication with the natives, from conveying to them crosses, images, relics, or any thing which bear any relation to the Christian religion, and more particularly to take care that none of them escape into the country, to attempt to propagate the Christian faith, or otherwise occasion disturbances. The 15th of the first Japanese month, which commonly falls about the middle of February, has been fixed by the Emperor for the constant departure of the ambassador from Nangasacki.

From that period till 1775 the Dutch commerce continued nearly upon the same footing. In that year the Japanese Government issued the strictest orders for the prevention of illicit commerce, which had always been carried on by the commanders of the Dutch ships, who were permitted to pass to and from the ship without being searched. This indulgence is now done away, and they are never allowed to go on shore without the most rigorous examination.

It appears, from a statement drawn up in the year 1776, that in the ten years, 1766 to 1775 inclusive, the Dutch gained by the Japan trade, in which 19 ships had been employed, a capital of 3,562,517 florins, on an average 356,250 florins, about £30,000 sterling.

During the same period the losses at sea amounted to 707,858 florins, or upon an average of the cargoes of the 19 ships, rather more than 23 per cent. and the expences were as follow:

The expences of the establishment at Nangasacki .....10,356 florins per month.
The expence of table-money, &c. at the factory .....17,592 ditto per season.
The presents, and expences of proceeding to Court .....54,788 ditto per ditto.

A commission is allowed to the officers of the Dutch establishment of about 15,000 florins per annum, of which the Chief of the factory receives one half, or 50 per cent. the next in office 20 per cent. the secretary 10 per cent. and four bookkeepers, each 5 per cent.

In 1795 the Dutch Government had it in contemplation to relinquish the trade with Japan; and it was recommended by their servants there, that if the Japanese continued in the same vexatious and unreasonable manner to throw obstacles in the way of their trade, previous notice should be given to the Governor of Nangasacki, that the Company could not possibly go on upon the present footing; and that if a free trade was not granted them, they must entirely relinquish Japan. On the following year, a person properly qualified should be sent thither, and the ship contain, besides the necessary ballast, nothing but the customary presents for the Court, and provisions for the Company's factory, with a letter addressed to the Emperor, representing, among other arguments, that a great change had taken place in the price of Indian goods, which had risen at least one half; and that owing to the very considerable importation of copper from Europe, that article no longer yielded such a profit as to indemnify the Company for the expence of shipping, and the heavy losses sustained from time to time by shipwreck, which would oblige them to desist from importing goods into Japan, and entirely to relinquish their factory; that they therefore threw themselves upon the justice of His Majesty, humbly requesting him to grant them such a free trade as they enjoyed in the times of his illustrious ancestors, with all their ancient privileges, being on their part subject, in all mercantile and civil concerns, to the laws and regulations of the places where they happen to be, or where their factories may be situated. But on deliberation it was agreed, that it was possible it might not produce effects corresponding to the wishes and expectations of the Company, and that in the then state of their affairs, the annual profit arising from the trade of 200,000 florins, was too much to be risked; it is therefore carried on under the same restrictions as heretofore.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—The following is an account of the cargoes of 13 ships imported from Batavia in 10 years, 1784 to 1793 inclusive:

Bullion to the amount of	Florins 311,625 12 0
Dutch merchandise	427,425 16 0
Stores and other bulky commodities	117,058 11 8
Sapan-wood from Bima, 2,760,751 lbs.	79,380 1 8
Tin, 1,010,000 lbs.	252,399 0 0
Cotton and silk stuffs and other fine Indian goods	238,691 18 0
Sugar, coffee, spices, and other small articles	989,843 18 0
Expences of shipping, goods on hand, charges of merchandise, &c.	1,058,096 18 8
Total cost of goods imported into Japan	Florins 3,534,521 15 8

The various articles which composed the above imports were as follow:

Borax.	Glass-ware.	Nutmegs.	Sapan wood.
Camphire Baroos.	Iron bars.	Pepper.	Soft sugar.
Cinnamon.	Lead.	Quicksilver.	Sugar candy.
Cloves.	Looking-glasses.	Rattans.	Tin.
Coffee.	Mace.	Raw silk.	Tortoise-shell.
Elephants' teeth.	Musk.	Saffron.	Unicorns' horns.

And various kinds of Indian piece-goods, both of cotton and silk manufacture.

EXPORTS.—The returns made to Batavia from Japan during the same period, were as follow:

9,068,042 lbs. copper, the prime cost of which was	Florins	2,228,094	0 0
624,501 lbs. camphire, ditto		198,185	19 0
Sundry small articles		93,955	4 0
Exclusive of the above, 676,900 lbs. copper were brought by the Company's servants, for which they were paid by the Company		278,668	8 0
Salaries of the servants at Japan, charges on the trade, &c.		611,467	6 0
Forming a total in ten years of		3,410,370	17 0
The camphire and small articles sold for, after deducting expences,		646,291	4 0
Which leave the cost of the 9,744,942 lbs. of copper, at	Florins	2,764,879	13 0

which cost the Company at Batavia, Florins 35 2 peculs, or 23 18 per 100 Dutch lbs.

The above copper was disposed of on the Company's account at the following factories, *viz.*

Ceylon	856,229 lbs.	sold for	Florins	635,659 0 0
Coromandel Coast	1,275,000			1,026,708 2 0
Surat	1,708,750			985,689 3 8
Malabar	550,000			377,317 3 8
Bengal	2,242,229			1,558,641 10 0
Malacca	530,000			364,224 0 0
Samarang	539,175			356,810 8 0
China	400,000			178,520 6 0
Sold at Batavia	119,375			77,734 16 0
Remaining on hand	974,184			668,653 0 0

Which with 550,000 lbs. lost on the passage to Bengal, form a total of 9,744,942 lbs. the sale amount of which was, Florins 6,229,857 9.

It appears, by the above statement, that the copper sold and remaining on hand, produced, during ten years	Florins	6,229,857	9 0
That the prime cost and expences to Batavia were Florins 2,764,879 13, to which add six months' interest, at 4½ per cent. which is Florins 62,191 15, in the whole		2,826,271	8 0
Leaving a net produce of	Florins	3,403,586	1 0

being on an average, one year with another, Florins 340,358 12, equal to 120 per cent. on the prime cost.

Copper is the principal article on account of which the navigation to Japan is carried on. The other articles of export, exclusive of camphire, are as follow:

Gold thread in rolls, which sometimes sells to great advantage among the Malays.

Japanned cabinets, boxes, chests of drawers, &c. the very best that can be procured.

Umbrellas, screens, and several other manufactures of rattans and canes.

Buffalo and other horns, also hard skins of fishes, which the Japanese work very neat.

Sowaas, an artificial metal, composed of copper, silver, and gold, much esteemed by the Malays.

Paper, painted and coloured, for hanging rooms, and other uses; and occasionally a considerable quantity of the seni, or cash; and the remainder of the returns, if any, are made in Japan gold cobangs.

MODE OF CONDUCTING THE COMMERCE.

The following account of the manner in which the commerce carried on by the Dutch is conducted, is extracted from Thunberg's Travels, who was at Japan in 1775.

"On anchoring at the entrance of the harbour, all the prayer-books and Bibles belonging to the sailors were collected, and put into a chest, which was nailed down. This chest was afterwards left under the care of the Japanese, till the time of our departure, when every one received his book again. This is done with a view to prevent the introduction of Christian or Roman Catholic books into the country.

"A muster-roll of the ship's company, consisting of about 110 men and 34 slaves, was made out, mentioning the age of every individual, which roll was given to the Japanese. The birth-place of each individual was not marked in the list, as they were all supposed to be Dutchmen, although many of them were Swedes, Danes, Germans, Portuguese, and Spaniards. According to this muster-roll, the whole ship's company is mustered immediately on the arrival of the Japanese, and afterwards every morning and evening of such days as the ship is either discharging or taking in her cargo, and when there is any intercourse between the ship and the factory. By these precautions the Japanese are assured that no one can either get away without their knowledge, or remain in the factory without their leave.

"As soon as we had anchored in the harbour, and saluted the town of Nangasacki, there came immediately on board two Japanese superior officers (banjoses) and some subaltern officers, as also the interpreters and their attendants. The business of these banjoses was, during the whole time of our ship's lying in the road, to take care that all the wares, and the people that went on shore, or came on board, were strictly searched; to receive orders from the Governor of the town; to sign all passports and papers which accompanied the merchandise, people, &c.

"After having several times fired our cannon, in saluting the Imperial guards, and on the arrival and departure of the Dutch principal officers, we were obliged to commit to the care of the Japanese the remainder of our powder, as also our ball, our weapons, and the above-mentioned chest full of books. For this purpose were delivered in a certain quantity of powder, six barrels full of ball, six muskets, and six bayonets, which we made them believe were all the ammunition we had remaining. All these articles are put into a storehouse till the ship leaves the road, when they are faithfully restored by the Japanese. They have of late years had the sense to leave the rudders of our ships untouched, and the sails and cannon on board. They were likewise weary of the trouble with which the fetching them back was attended, and which was by no means inconsiderable.

"The Japanese having thus, as they suppose, entirely disarmed us, the next thing they take in hand is to muster the men, which is done every day on board, both morning and evening, when the vessel is discharging or taking in her lading. Each time the number of men that are gone on shore, is set down very accurately, as well as the number of the sick, and the number of those that remain on board.

"On all those days, when any thing is carried on board, or taken out of the ship, the banjoses, the interpreters, clerks, and searchers are on board till the evening, when they all go on shore together, and leave the Europeans on board to themselves. On such occasions, the flag on board the ship is always hoisted, as well as that on the factory; and when two ships arrive here safe, business is transacted on board one or the other of them, by turns, every day. The ship's long-boat and pinnace were also taken into the care of the Japanese, so that both the people and the merchandise are carried to and from the ship by the Japanese. To prevent the Dutch coming from the ship, or the Japanese from going to it, and trafficing, especially under covert of the night, and when no Japanese officers are on board, several large guard-vessels are placed round the ship, and at some distance from it; and besides this, there are several small boats ordered to row every hour in the night round the ship, and very near it.

"A great number of labourers were ordered to attend to the discharge and loading of the boats, and bringing them to and from the ship, others being set as inspectors over them. The Dutch formerly took the liberty to punish and correct with blows these day-labourers, who were of the lowest class of people; but at present this procedure is absolutely, and under the severest penalties, forbidden by the Government, as bringing a disgrace upon the nation.

"When an European goes to or from the ship, either with or without any baggage, an officer is always attending with a permit, on which his name is written, his watch marked down, &c.

"On those days when there is nothing done towards discharging or loading the ship, no Japanese officers, nor any other Japanese, come on board, neither do any of the Dutch themselves go to or from the ship on such days. The gate of the island also, towards the water-side, is locked at this time. Should an urgent occasion require any of the officers to come on board of the ship, such as the Captain or the surgeon, which is signified by the hoisting of a flag, in such case leave must be first obtained from the Governor of the town; and should this be granted, still the gate towards the sea-shore is not opened, but the person to whom leave is granted, is conducted by interpreters and officers through a small part of the town to a little bridge, from which he is taken on board in a boat, after having gone through the strictest search. The banjoses and interpreters, who accompany him, do not, however, go on board the ship, but wait in their boats till he has transacted his business on board, from whence he is conducted back to the factory.

"Custom-houses are not known, either in the interior of the country or on its coasts, and no customs are demanded on imports or exports of goods, either from strangers or natives. But that no prohibited goods may be smuggled into the country, so close a watch is kept, and all persons that arrive, as well as merchandise, are so strictly searched, that the hundred eyes of Argus might be said to be employed on this occasion. When any European goes ashore, he is first searched on board, and afterwards as soon as he comes on shore. Both these searches are very strict; so that not only travellers' pockets are turned inside out, but the officers' hands pass along their bodies and thighs. All the Japanese that go on board of ship, are in like manner searched, excepting only the superior order of banjoses. All articles exported or imported undergo a similar search, first on board the ship, and afterwards in the factory, except large chests, which are emptied in the factory, and are so narrowly examined, that they even sound the boards, suspecting them to be hollow. The beds are frequently ripped open, and the feathers turned over. Iron spikes are thrust into the butter-tubs and jars of sweetmeats. In the cheese a square hole is cut, in which part a thick-pointed wire is thrust into it towards every side. Nay, their suspicion went even so far, as to induce them to take an egg or two from among those we had brought from Batavia, and break them. The same severe conduct is observed when any goes from the factory to the ship, or into the town of Nangasacki, and from thence to the island of Dezima. Every one that passes, must take his watch out of his pocket, and shew it to the officers, who always mark it down whenever it is carried in or out. Sometimes too, strangers hats are searched. Neither money nor coin must by any means be brought in by private persons; but they are laid by, and taken care of till the owner's departure. No letters to be sent to or from the ship sealed; and if they are, they are opened, and sometimes, as well as other manuscripts, must be read by the interpreters. Religious books, especially if they are adorned with cuts, are very dangerous to import; but the Europeans are otherwise suffered to carry in a great number of books for their own use; and the search was the less strict in this respect, as they looked into a few of them only. Latin, French, Swedish, and German books and manuscripts pass the more easily, as the interpreters do not understand them. Arms, it is true, are not allowed to be carried into the country; nevertheless, we are as yet suffered to take our swords with us.

"The Dutch themselves are the occasion of these over-rigorous searches, the strictness of which has been augmented on several different occasions, till it has arrived at its present height. Numerous artifices

have been applied to the purposes of bringing goods into the factory by stealth, and the interpreters, who heretofore had never been searched, used to carry contraband goods by degrees, and in small parcels, to the town, where they sold for ready money. To this may be added, the pride which some of the weaker-minded officers in the Dutch service very imprudently exhibited to the Japanese, by ill-timed contradiction, contemptuous behaviour, scornful looks, and laughter, which occasioned the Japanese in their turn to hate and despise them; a hatred which is greatly increased upon observing in how unfriendly and unmannerly a style they usually behave to each other, and the brutal treatment which the sailors under their command frequently experience from them, together with the oaths, curses, and blows with which the poor fellows are assailed by them. All these circumstances have induced the Japanese, from year to year, to curtail more and more the liberties of the Dutch merchants, and to search them more strictly than ever; so that now, with all their finesse and artifice, they are hardly able to throw dust in the eyes of so vigilant a nation as this.

"Within the water-gate of Dezima, when any thing is to be exported or imported, are seated the head and under banjoses, and interpreters, before whose eyes the whole undergoes a strict search. And that the Europeans may not scrape an acquaintance with the searchers, they are changed so often, that no opportunity is given them.

"This puts a stop to illicit commerce only, but not to private trade, as every body is at liberty to carry in whatever he can dispose of, or there is a demand for, and even such articles as are not allowed to be uttered for sale, so that it be not done secretly. The camphire of Sumatra, and tortoise-shell, private persons are not permitted to deal in, because the Company reserve that traffic to themselves. The reason why private persons prefer the smuggling of such articles as are forbidden to be disposed of by auction at the public sale, is, that when wares of any kind are sold by auction, they do not receive ready money for them, but are obliged to take other articles in payment; but when the commodities can be disposed of underhand, they get gold coin, and are often paid twice as much as they would have had otherwise.

"Some years ago, when smuggling was still in a flourishing state, the greater part of the contraband wares was carried by the interpreters from the factory into the town; but sometimes they were thrown over the wall of Dezima, and received by boats ordered out for that purpose. Several of the interpreters, and other Japanese, have been caught at various times in the fact, and punished with death.

"Smuggling has always been attended with severe punishments; and even the Dutch have been very largely fined, which fine has of late been augmented, so that if any European is taken in the fact, he is obliged to pay 200 catties of copper, and is banished the country for ever. Besides this, a deduction of 10,000 catties of copper is made from the Company's account; and if the fraud is discovered after the ship has left the harbour, the Chief and the Captain are fined 200 catties each.

"The Company's wares do not undergo any search at all, but are directly carried to the storehouse, on which the Japanese fix their seal; where they are kept till they are all sold and fetched away.

"The interpreters are natives of Japan, and speak with more or less accuracy the Dutch language. The Government permits no foreigners to learn their language, in order that, by means of it, they may not pick up any knowledge of the country; but allow from 40 to 50 interpreters, who are to serve the Dutch in their factory with respect to their commerce, and on other occasions. These interpreters are divided into three classes. The oldest, who speak the Dutch language best, are called head interpreters; those who are less perfect, under interpreters; and those who stand more in need of instruction, bear the denomination of apprentices, or learners. Formerly the Japanese apprentices were instructed by the Dutch themselves in their language; but now they are taught by the elder interpreters. The apprentices had also, before this, liberty to come to the factory whenever they chose; but now they are only suffered to come when they are on actual service. The interpreters rise gradually and in rotation to preferments

and emoluments, without being employed in any other department. Their duty and employment consist in being present, generally one, or sometimes two of each class, when any affairs are transacted between the Japanese and Dutch, whether commercial or otherwise. They interpret either viva voce or in writing, whenever any matter is to be laid before the Governor, the officers, or others, whether it be a complaint or request. They are obliged to be present at all searches, as well at those that are made on board ship, as at those which take place at the factory, and likewise to attend in the journey to Court. They were formerly allowed to go whenever they chose to the Dutchmen's apartments; but now this is prohibited, in order to prevent smuggling, excepting on certain occasions. They are always accompanied as well to the ships as to their College in the island of Dezima, by several clerks, who take an account of every thing that is shipped or unloaded, write permits, and perform other offices of a similar nature.

"Kambang money, or the sums due for goods that are sold, is never paid in hard cash, as the carrying it out of the country is prohibited; but there is an assignment made on it, and bills are drawn for such a sum as will be requisite for the whole year's supply, as also for as much as will be wanted at the fair of the island. This kambang money is, in the common phrase of the country, very light, and less in value than specie, so that with the money which is thus assigned over, one is obliged to pay nearly double for every thing. All these kambang bills are paid at the Japanese new year only. Every man's account is made out before the ship sails, and is presented and accepted at the College of the interpreters, after which the books are closed. All that is wanted after the new year, is taken up upon credit for the whole year ensuing.

"The 18th of February is, with the Japanese, the last day of the year. On this day all accounts between private persons are to be closed; and these, as well as all other debts, to be paid. Fresh credit is afterwards given till the month of June, when there must be a settlement again. Among the Japanese, as well as in China, in case of loans, very high interest is frequently paid, from 18 to 20 per cent. I was informed that if a man did not take care to be paid before new year's day, he had afterwards no right to demand payment on the new year.

"When the Dutch do not deal for ready money, their commerce can hardly be considered in any other light than that of barter. With this view, a fair is kept on the island, about a fortnight before the mustering of the ship, and its departure for Papenberg, a small island near the entrance of the harbour, when certain merchants, with the consent of the Governor, and on paying a small duty, are allowed to carry their merchandise thither, and expose it to sale in booths erected for that purpose.

"The copper, the principal article of export, was brought from the interior and distant parts of the country, and kept in a storehouse; and as soon as the ship was in part discharged, the loading it with the copper commenced. This latter was weighed, and put into long wooden boxes, a picul in each, in presence of the Japanese officers and interpreters, and of the Dutch supracargoes and writers, and afterwards conveyed by the Japanese to the bridge, in order to be put on board. On such occasions a few sailors always attend, to watch that the labourers do not steal it, which they will do if possible, as they can sell it to the Chinese, who pay them well for it.

"When the ship is nearly laden, she is conducted to Papenberg, there to remain at anchor, and take in the residue of her cargo, and all the merchandise and other things belonging to the officers, the ship's provisions, &c. A few days after, when the ship has anchored in the harbour, the Governor points out the day when she is to sail, and this command must be obeyed so implicitly, that, were the wind ever so contrary, or even if it blew a hard gale, the ship must depart without any excuse, or the least shadow of opposition. Before the ship leaves the harbour, the powder, arms, and the chest of books that were taken out, are returned; the sick from the hospital are put on board; and whilst she is sailing out, the guns are fired to salute the town and the factory, and afterwards the two imperial guards at the entrance of the harbour."

PORT REGULATIONS, ORDERS, &c.

The following are extracts from instructions delivered by the Japanese to the Dutch:

I. Our imperial predecessors have ordered concerning you, Dutchmen, that you shall have leave to come to Nangasacki, on account of the Japan trade, every year. Therefore, as we have commanded you heretofore, you shall have no communication with the Portuguese. If you should have any, and we should come to know it, you shall be prohibited the trade to Japan. You shall import no Portuguese commodities on board your ships.

II. If you intend not to be molested in your navigation and trade to Japan, you shall notify to us by your ships, whatever comes to your knowledge of any endeavours or attempts of the Portuguese against us; we likewise expect to hear from you if the Portuguese should conquer any new places or countries, or convert them to the Christian sect. Whatever comes to your knowledge in all countries you trade to, we expect that you should notify the same to our Governors at Nangasacki.

III. You shall take no China junks bound to Japan.

IV. In all countries you frequent with your ships, if there be any Portuguese there, you shall have no communication with them. If there be any countries frequented by both nations, you shall take down in writing the names of such countries or places, and by the Captains of the ships you send to Japan yearly, deliver the same to our Governors at Nangasacki.

V. The Liquejans being subjects of Japan, you shall take none of their ships or boats.

The following are the regulations respecting the Island, or Street Dezima:

I. Women of the town, but no other women, shall be suffered to go in.

II. All persons living upon charity, and beggars, shall be excluded.

III. Nobody shall presume with any ship or boat to come within the palisades of Dezima. Nobody shall presume with any ship or boat to pass under the bridge of Dezima.

IV. No Hollander shall be permitted to come out but for weighty reasons.

All the above-mentioned orders shall be punctually obeyed.

The following are the orders to be observed during the Dutch sale at Dezima:

I. No Dutchman shall be permitted to go out without leave.

II. Nobody shall be suffered to come into the island before the sale begins, but the ordinary officers and servants.

III. No goods whatever shall be carried out of the island before the sale begins. No tent, nor any Spanish wines, shall be sent out of the island without special licence.

IV. No Japanese arms, nor the pictures, or representations, or puppet figures of any military people, shall be brought to Dezima. Pursuant to our often repeated strict commands, no goods whatever shall be sold privately to the Dutch; and no goods shall be bought of them in the same private way.

V. When the time for the departure of the Dutch ships draws near, notice shall be given to the Magistrates and the College of Interpreters, of what goods have been sold to the Dutch, together with a written list of the same, that so the sums agreed on, be paid in time, and all trouble and inconvenience avoided on the last days of their stay in the harbour.

VI. The Dutch and Portuguese interpreters who frequent the island, and are licensed for so doing, shall not plot, nor privately converse together.

VII. Nobody shall come to Dezima without special leave, but the Bugjo and the officers of the island.

All the articles aforesaid every body is commanded duly and strictly to observe.

PROHIBITED GOODS.

The following is a list of prohibited goods, none of which the Dutch are suffered to buy, or to export from the country.

The Emperor's coat of arms.
All prints, pictures, goods, or stuffs, bearing the same.
Warlike instruments.
Pictures and representations, printed or others, of soldiers and military people.
Ditto of any persons belonging to the Court of the ecclesiastical, or hereditary Emperor.
Pictures or models of Japanese ships or boats.
Maps of the empire of Japan, or any part thereof.
Plans of towns, castles, temples, and the like.
Puppets, or small figures, representing military men.
Crooked knives, such as carpenters use.
Fino Ginu. A sort of silk stuff made at Fino.
Kaga Ginu. The like made at Kaga. These are made up in long rolls, like the silks of Tonquin.
Isu muggi. Another sort of stuff, in long rolls, made in Japan.
All sorts of fine silken stuffs.
All sorts of stuffs made of hemp and cotton.
Mats of silk.
All sorts of scimitars, and other arms made in imitation of those imported by the Dutch.

If any foreigner or Japanese endeavours, contrary to orders, to dispose of any contraband goods whatsoever, and it be discovered, notice shall be forthwith given to the proper magistrates. If any of the accomplices discovers himself, and turns evidence, he shall have his pardon, and moreover a reward proportionable to the crime. Offenders found guilty upon the evidence of their accomplices, shall be punished according to law.

IMPORT AND EXPORT DUTIES.

The levying of duties or imposts on goods is nowhere observed in Japan, except at Nangasacki, and it was formerly moderate. It is called fannagin or flower money, and is levied for the maintenance and advantage of the town. The duty laid upon the goods imported by the Dutch Company, is 15 per cent. which upon the amount of the sales, produces 45,000 tales. The goods belonging to individuals, which are sold after those of the Company, pay much more, and not less than 65 per cent. on all stuffs and goods sold by pieces, which upon 20,000 tales, brings in 13,000 tales. Goods sold by weight pay a duty of 70 per cent. which upon 20,000 tales, makes 14,000 duty. The reason given for the great difference in the duties on goods the property of the Dutch Company, and that of individuals, is, because private goods are brought on board the Company's ships at their risk and expence, and consequently deserve less profit.

The Chinese, for the like reason, because they are not at the expence of such long and hazardous voyages as the Dutch, pay also a duty of 60 per cent. on all their goods, which upon the 600,000 tales, the value they are permitted to sell every year, brings in a sum of 360,000 tales. Added to which, the rent of the Dutch factory and houses, which is 5,580 tales, and that of the Chinese factory, which is 16,000 tales a year, forms a total of 453,580 tales, which the foreign commerce produces annually to the town of Nangasacki.

CHAPTER XXX.

Isle of France, Saint Helena, &c.

Islands in the Indian Ocean—Rodrigue—Isle of France; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports and Exports—Provisions and Refreshments—Bourbon; Description, &c.—St. Helena; Description—Coins, Weights, and Measures—Imports from England in the private Trade of the Commanders and Officers of the Company's Ships—Company's Imports from England—Company's Imports from the British Settlements in India and from China—Company's Revenues, Disbursements, Assets, &c.—Extracts from the Company's Instructions relative to the Island—Port Regulations—Provisions and Refreshments—Rise and Progress of the Commerce between Sweden and the East Indies—Ascension Island—Ferdinand Noronha—The Azores, or Western Islands—Flores—Corvo—Fayal—Pico—Tiercera—Gracioza—St. George's—St. Michael's—St. Mary's.

IN the Indian Ocean are several islands, the principal of which are Rodrigue, called also Diego Rais; the Isle of France, or Mauritius; and Bourbon, or Mascarenhas.

RODRIGUE.

This island extends East and West about 16 miles, and is about 7 in breadth from North to South. It is situated in latitude 19° 41' South, and longitude 63° 10' East. Near the middle of the island is a remarkable peak, that answers as a guide for the road; when it bears south, you are abreast of the road, which is called Mathewren Bay: it is safe when you are in, but the channel is very intricate. Here is a small settlement with a few guns mounted, and small vessels are employed in transporting turtle, with which the island abounds, to the Mauritius. Here is abundance of fish; but some of them are said to be poisonous. Ample supplies of wood and water may be obtained with the greatest facility.

ISLE OF FRANCE,

Called Mauritius by the English and Dutch, is about 100 leagues to the westward of Rodrigue. It is high and mountainous, and may be seen 18 leagues off in clear weather. It extends in a N. E. and S. W. direction, the S.W. point being in latitude 20° 27' South, and longitude 57° 16' East, and the N. E. point in latitude 19° 53' South, and longitude 57° 35' East.

There are two ports or harbours, Port Louis or Port North-west, and Port Bourbon; the latter, being on the windward side of the island, is but little frequented, the trade wind rendering the navigation out of it very difficult.

Port North-west, the capital of this island, is situated at the bottom of a triangular bay, the entrance to which is very intricate. The principal town, or as it is sometimes called the Camp, is chiefly composed of wooden houses, which have only a ground floor, on account of the winds and heat; they are separated from each other, and surrounded with palisades; the streets are tolerably straight. The Government house is built entirely of stone; the place of arms and the parade are before the Governor's house, and the hospital is at the extreme point of the harbour. The town has no regular fortifications; but to the left of it, on looking towards the sea, there is an entrenchment of stone. On the same side is Fort Blanc, which defends the entrance; and opposite to it, on the other side, is a battery on a small island, called Tonneliers; and there are several other batteries mounted with heavy cannon.

The powder magazine is situated on a small island, which is connected with the shore by a causeway, nearly opposite the Government house. This causeway serves also for a quay, and it encloses a part of the great bason for the refitting of vessels, and near it they take in their fresh water with the greatest convenience. Here also is a curious machine, by which vessels are lifted out of the water, so that they are cleaned and repaired with the utmost expedition.

Every vessel approaching the island, must hoist her flag, and fire two guns; if in the night, a light must be shewn, when a pilot comes on board, and steers the ship to the entrance of the Port. The Port Captain then comes on board with a boat, chains, &c. to assist the ship in entering the harbour, and moor it there, which he sees properly done before he returns on shore.

Port North-west is a very convenient port, in which vessels may refresh and repair at a small expence, and with the greatest expedition. There are several pontoons for the purpose of careening vessels, and the workshops of the various artificers are so near that they may be hailed from the ship.

This island was discovered in 1505 by the Portuguese, who called it Cerne; the Dutch afterwards gave it the name of Mauritius, and their ships occasionally stopped here. It was first visited by the English in 1613, and was at that time uninhabited. It is difficult to ascertain who were the first settlers of it; but it is generally supposed to be some of the pirates who infested the Indian Seas in those days. About 1644 the Dutch began to settle upon it; but not finding it a place of any importance to them, it was evacuated in 1712, on which the French, from the neighbouring island, Bourbon, formed a settlement, and changed its name to the Isle of France. In 1721 it was formally taken possession of in the name of the King of France.

In 1730 engineers, and other persons properly qualified, were sent out to form a regular establishment. In 1735 M. de la Bourdonnais was appointed Governor, who by his great exertion brought the island into importance. In 1748 the English fleet, under Boscawen, made their appearance off the island, with a force sufficient to reduce it; but by a council of war it was agreed that the attack, and the maintenance of it when taken, would not only retard, but might probably disable the armament from undertaking the siege of Pondicherry, which was the principal object of the expedition; they therefore proceeded to the Coast of Coromandel.

Soon after the commencement of the war with France in 1793, the English Government had it in contemplation to fit out an expedition from India against the Mauritius; but the unsettled state of the Peninsula prevented any attempts being made against it. During the whole war the French privateers committed great depredations on the English commerce in India. A gentleman at Madras, of eminent abilities, and much public spirit, took a great deal of care in compiling a statement of the captures made by the enemy in the Indian Seas, from the breaking out of the war until the middle of 1804, for the purpose of laying it before Sir Edward Pellew, who had at that time recently arrived in India, to take upon himself the command of the naval forces in India. The value of the captures made by the enemy was computed, at a moderate estimate, to have amounted in the course of 10 years to £2,500,000. The

hulls of the captured ships were purchased by some Danes, and occasionally by the Arabs, who reside at the Mauritius for no other purpose than to purchase captured ships, and send them on to Calcutta to be disposed of, where for a long period they invariably found a ready sale; but the facility of effecting an easy sale of these ships was very properly considered to be a great encouragement to the enemy's cruisers. It would have been more fortunate had this consideration suggested to the mercantile part of the community in India, at an earlier period, the expediency of adopting resolutions similar to those which were resolved on by the several insurance offices in Calcutta, at a meeting held on the 12th of February, 1806, the nature of which was as follows:

"The insurance offices of Calcutta, with the view of effectually preventing the return to India of British ships captured and carried into the Mauritius, have come to the following resolutions:—Resolved, that no ships which have been captured and returned to India (recaptured ships excepted) under whatever colours they may come, or hereafter sail under, and not on this day furnished with a British passport, or other British sea document, from any of the Presidencies, shall be insured by any of the offices in Calcutta; and this resolution equally applies to the cargo which may at any time be laden on such ships, as to the blocks of the ships themselves.

"It is also resolved, that no individual member of any of the insurance offices, who is present, shall on any account underwrite any private policy on such captured ships, or their cargoes, intended to be excepted against by these resolutions.

"Ordered, that these resolutions be published three times in the Calcutta and India Gazettes, and that copies thereof be transmitted to the insurance offices at Madras and Bombay, with a recommendation that they shall adopt similar resolutions."

No expedient could have been with more propriety resorted to, nor could any other resolutions have been suggested, more likely to check the depredations committed by the enemy's privateers in these seas. So numerous and valuable were the prizes taken, and carried into the Isle of France, that the markets were overstocked with the manufactures and staple commodities of the British possessions in India; and American vessels frequently resorted thither, to procure them on terms more favourable than they could have been obtained in Calcutta.

In 1810 an expedition was fitted out from India against this last and important colony of the French. The army was landed on the 29th of November, and after a slight resistance, the Governor proposed a capitulation, which, after some discussion and modification, was ultimately settled, and ratified on the 30th of December. Besides the valuable ordnance, stores, and other public property on the island, there were ceded to the captors six frigates, completely equipped, carrying from 36 to 52 guns, three East Indiamen, and 24 merchant ships, many of them from 600 to 900 tons burthen; it also restored to the service of their country 2000 seamen and soldiers, confined in the enemy's prisons.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

The currency of the island are Spanish dollars, the exchange of which with Madras is fixed at 16½ Spanish dollars for 10 pagodas, each pagoda 45 fanams. The dollar is worth 200 colonial sous; the component parts bear a relative value.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.

IMPORTS.—A small trade was carried on with the British settlements in India by the means of neutrals, and by the cartels which passed between the two Governments in the course of the war. The ships employed on the expedition from India brought large quantities of both European and Indian produce, with the hope of meeting a market; ships were also sent laden from Bombay and the Cape of Good Hope;

in consequence of which, the price of foreign commodities became so reduced in value, that the importers sustained very heavy losses. The following articles composed the principal part of the imports:

Ale, in casks.	Furniture.	Lead of sorts.	Saddlery.
Books & pamphlets.	Groceries.	Musicalinstruments	Ship-chandlery.
Boots and shoes.	Glass ware.	Medicines.	Silk goods.
Brasiery.	Hats.	Millinery.	Spices.
Cabinet ware.	Haberdashery.	Oilman's stores.	Steel.
Cotton goods.	Hardware.	Piece-goods.	Stationery.
Cards.	Hosiery.	Painters' colours.	Tin-ware.
Cloths & casimeres.	Jewellery.	Perfumery.	Turnery.
Cutlery.	Ironmongery.	Plate & plated ware.	Watches.
Confectionary.	Iron hoops.	Provisions.	Wines of sorts.
Earthen-ware.	Looking-glasses.	Pictures.	Woollens.

Previous to the arrival of the expedition, the island had been well supplied with European commodities from the captures of various ships bound from England to India, and by the Americans, who kept up a continued intercourse with these islands.

EXPORTS.—Coffee, indigo, cotton, raw sugar, and cloves are produced on the island. The following is stated to be the annual produce of the island:

Coffee, 6000 bales, of 100 lbs. French. This is esteemed next to the Mocha coffee.

Cotton, 2000 bales, of 250 lbs. each. This is superior to any produced in India.

Indigo, 300,000 lbs. in a good year. Some of this is very excellent.

Raw sugar, 5,000,000 lbs. This is produced in abundance on most parts of the island.

Cloves, 20,000 lbs. and the clove plantations on the island are in an improving state.

The island also produces excellent black-wood, and several other kinds suitable to the dyer and carpenter.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

Provisions of various kinds are to be procured here, the greater part of which is imported from Bourbon, which island may be considered the granary of the Mauritius. The following are the usual prices:

Beef and mutton	1s. per lb.	Ducks, according to size	2s. to 3s. each.
Kid	1s. ditto.	Geese	7s. to 8s. ditto.
Pork	6d. ditto.	Turkies	10s. to 12s. ditto.
Fowls	2s. 6d. each.	Pigeons	2s. to 3s. per dozen.

Bread and wines fluctuate according to circumstances. Of vegetables, the following are to be met with: peas, beans, cabbages, and cauliflowers; and of fruits, oranges, apples, guavas, apricots, &c.

Round the island is abundance of fish of various kinds, and from Rodrigue are brought great numbers of turtle, which are sold at reasonable prices.

The water is excellent, and is brought from a small river, about a league from the town, by pipes to a reservoir, under which boats come and fill their casks with ease and expedition.

BOURBON.

This island is of a round form, about 14 leagues from N. W. to S. E. and about 35 leagues from the Isle of France. St. Denis, the principal town on the island, is situated on its north side, in latitude 20° 52 South, and longitude 55° 27 East. The anchorage is near the shore, and unsafe.

The town of St. Denis is agreeably situated on a small plain near the sea, and contains about 150 houses built of wood. The house of the Governor, which is large and convenient, and a few others, are built of stone; and the greater part of them have gardens behind them. The town is defended by several batteries, mounted with heavy cannon. The hanging bridge here merits particular attention; it is constructed to project as it were into the sea, and by its assistance goods may be embarked or disembarked with convenience and safety in the most boisterous weather, and when it is impossible to approach the shore, from the violence of the waves breaking against it.

In 1665 the French settled on Bourbon, and the population had become so considerable, as to enable them to form a settlement on the Mauritius in 1712, when the Dutch had abandoned it; from that period it increased in population and resources. In 1810 the English fitted out an expedition against Bourbon, to which it surrendered by capitulation on the 8th of July; the troops to be allowed the honours of war, to surrender themselves prisoners, and to be embarked for the Cape of Good Hope or England.

A trade is carried on in provisions with the Isle of France, and Bourbon produces similar articles of export, viz. coffee, cotton, indigo, raw sugar, and cloves. The produce of corn amounts to about 14,000,000 lbs. and the Isle of France has chiefly depended upon it.

SAINT HELENA.

This island is situated in the Southern Atlantic Ocean; its length is about three leagues, nearly N. E. and S. W., of a circular form, about 26 or 27 miles round. When first observed, it presents the appearance of an abrupt and rugged mountain, divested of tree, shrub, or herbage. The principal ridge in the centre of the island is called Diana's Peak, and is about 2200 feet above the level of the sea; near the S. W. part there is a hill of a conical form, called High Peak, rather less elevated than the other. There is very little level ground on the island; the whole of it appears in abrupt ridges and chasms, but the vallies are fruitful, and clothed with continual verdure, unless in very dry seasons.

At the N. E. extremity of the island there is a pyramidical hill close to the sea, called the Sugar-loaf, with a signal post upon it; at the base of this hill there are three batteries, at a small distance from each other, called Buttermilk, and Banks's Upper and Lower Batteries. A little to the S. W. of these Rupert's Battery appears, at the bottom of a valley of the same name, which is a strong stone wall and battery mounted with heavy cannon; and Munden's Point divides this valley from James's, or Chapel Valley, where James's Town, the only one on the island, is situated. On Munden's Point there is a fort of the same name, and several guns placed on the heights over it, which command that side of James's Valley. This valley has on the S. W. side a hill, elevated nearly 800 feet perpendicular from the sea, called Ladder Hill, with a heavy battery of guns upon it, that commands the S. W. entrance to the valley and anchorage. James's Valley is also protected by a wall and strong line of cannon at its entrance, close to the sea. There is also a battery at Sandy Bay, on the south side of the island, where boats may land when the surf is not great; but this, and every other part where there is a possibility of landing, are well secured by batteries or guns placed on the heights over them; and on the summits of the hills there are convenient signal posts all over the island, communicating by telegraphs with each other and with the castle, which add greatly to the natural strength of the island.

When a ship is descried, a gun is fired at the signal post where she is first seen, and this is repeated by the other posts to the castle, which is called an alarm; if more ships appear, a gun is fired for each till five in number, when the signal is made for a fleet; but if more than two sail appear to be steering together for the island, a general alarm is beat, and every person takes possession of the post assigned him, and remains under arms till the Governor is made acquainted by the boats with what ships they are.

All ships coming in from the eastward, heave to to windward of the island, and send a boat on

shore with an officer, to report their nation and business, and obtain the Governor's permission for anchoring. The boat is generally hailed from the battery at Sugar-loaf Point; but she must proceed to James's Town to give the Governor information, before the ship is permitted to pass the first battery at the Sugar-loaf. Ships of war as well as merchantmen must observe this precaution, or the batteries will open upon them. When the boat is perceived returning, the ship makes sail for the anchorage.

On rounding Munden's Point, the eye is relieved from the dreary aspect of the island by a view of the town, situated in a narrow valley, between two lofty mountains: this valley is called James's Valley, opposite to which you may anchor in from 8 to 15 fathoms, with the flagstaff at the fort bearing S. S. E., distance from the shore about half a mile; this is a good and convenient birth for watering. Upon landing, which is at a kind of jetty, constructed by Governor Brooke, and passing the drawbridge, the way leads between a fine line of 32 pounders and a double row of trees. The town is entered by an arched gateway under a rampart or terrace, forming one side of a parade, about 100 feet square. This parade, were it not disfigured by some mean buildings on the right, would have a handsome appearance. On the left side are the Government-house and main guard-room; the former is enclosed with a wall, having the semblance of embrasures, and is called the castle: it contains the habitation of the Governor and the public officers. The church is fronting the gateway, and is a handsome building; on the right of which is a neat little theatre, far superior to many of the provincial in England. The principal street commences between the church and a small palisadoed enclosure, called the Company's garden. It consists of about 30 houses, most of them neat and well-constructed. At the top it divides into two other streets, one to the east, leading to that side of the country; the other proceeding to the upper part of the valley, across a wooden bridge thrown over a small rivulet; in this street are the barracks, the new garden, the hospital, and a number of shops well stored with all sorts of European, Indian, and Chinese commodities; but the houses are in general far inferior to those in the lower part of the town, where the principal inhabitants reside.

St. Helena was discovered by the Portuguese on the 21st of May, 1501, who shortly after formed a small settlement. They were afterwards expelled by the Dutch, who retained possession of it till about 1651, when they withdrew their colonists to the Cape of Good Hope. The English then took possession of the island. King Charles II. confirmed it to the Company by the charter of 3d of April, 1661, by which he empowered the Company "to erect castles, fortifications, and forts in the Island of St. Helena, and to furnish them with stores and ammunition, and to engage such number of men as they should think fit to serve as a garrison." Jealous of the English occupying a station which might facilitate the navigation to and from the East Indies, the Dutch, availing themselves of the war which broke out between England and Holland in 1665, made a successful attack on the island; it was soon after retaken from them by the English under Captain Munden. This capture gave rise to a question respecting the rights of the Crown and of the Company, whether the island, which was granted to the Company by the charter of 1661, reverted to them as a right; or whether, from having been recovered by the King's fleet, without the aid of the Company, it again became the property of the Crown, to be disposed of according to the King's pleasure? To obviate this difficulty, His Majesty, by a charter dated December 16, 1673, regranted the island to the East India Company in perpetuity, "to be held of the King, his heirs, and successors, as of the Manor of East Greenwich, in free and common socage," reserving only to the King the allegiance of the inhabitants. By this charter the King granted to the Company all the ordnance, ammunition, and stores remaining on the island, and authorized them to transport to it settlers and recruits, and to send stores and provisions duty free; to make laws for the government of the island, and to punish offenders; it also empowered the Governor to exercise martial law on the island, and to repel invaders and unlicensed persons, and declared that the natives and settlers were to be

deemed natural born subjects of England. In 1684 a mutiny broke out in the garrison, which was fortunately quelled; two of the ringleaders suffered death. In 1689 another and more dangerous insurrection broke out on the island, in which the Governor lost his life; and the mutineers, having plundered the town of most of its valuables, took possession of a ship in the roads, and proceeded to America. Soon after a conspiracy of the blacks was formed to massacre the European inhabitants, to seize a ship, and convey themselves to their native country: fortunately this plot was discovered in time to prevent its consequences. In 1783 the tranquillity of the island was again interrupted by a mutiny, which was quelled, and several of the ringleaders suffered death. In 1810, in consequence of some alteration in the mode of victualling the garrison, they revolted from their allegiance, and were with difficulty reduced to order, but not till many of the principal leaders were executed.

COINS, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES.

Coins.—Accounts are kept in pounds, shillings, and pence; but coins of every denomination pass current here, both Indian and European.

Porto Novo pagodas used to pass at the same rate as star pagodas, notwithstanding they are inferior; but Government having made an alteration, they only pass current at 7s. 6d. Guineas are generally at a premium, likewise bank notes; passengers returning to England preferring to put up with the loss here to that in England, upon the sale of East India coins.

Weights and Measures.—All weighable commodities are bought and sold by avoirdupois weight, and the English yard is the common measure for cloth, linens, &c.

IMPORTS FROM ENGLAND.

In the privilege of the commanders and officers of the store-ships, of which one or two are annually consigned to the island by the East India Company, are imported the following articles for the consumption of the settlement, and the supply of the homeward-bound ships, viz.

Ale, in casks.	Glass ware.	Ironmongery.	Provisions, salt.
Books & pamphlets.	Garden seeds.	Musical instruments	Rum shrub.
Boots and shoes.	Hats.	Millinery.	Saddlery.
Cabinet ware.	Hams.	Oilman's stores.	Ship-chandlery.
Canvas.	Haberdashery.	Perfumery.	Stationery.
Cloths & casimeres.	Hardware.	Plated ware.	Tin-ware.
Chintz and muslins.	Hosiery.	Porter.	Tobacco.
Cutlery.	Jewellery.	Port wine.	Watches.

And the homeward-bound ships bring the following East India and China produce:

China-ware.	Lackered ware.	Sugar-candy.	Teas.
Canton cloth.	Muslins.	Sugar.	Toys.
Furniture.	Nankeens.	Silk piece-goods.	Thread.
Long-cloths.	Rice.	Sweetmeats.	Wax candles.

For the outward-bound investments dollars are generally paid, and those homeward-bound are in general of so small an amount, that if the ships remain any time, it is absorbed in the expences of the ship, and that of the commanders and officers.

COMPANY'S IMPORTS.

The following is a statement of the goods and stores imported into the island by the East India Company from England, and the profit and loss incurred, exclusive of rents, revenues, and charges general, from the years 1792–3 to 1808–9 inclusive.

Season.	Goods & Stores.	Profit.	Loss.	Net Profit.	Net Loss.
	£	£	£	£	£
1792–3	16,577	17,023	6,496	10,527	—
1793–4	33,608	11,211	7,458	3,753	—
1794–5	31,388	6,839	3,343	3,496	—
1795–6	33,248	6,541	5,751	796	—
1796–7	40,138	8,491	5,887	2,604	—
1797–8	38,851	9,468	8,065	1,403	—
1798–9	40,503	8,154	7,532	622	—
1799–0	37,043	12,341	7,034	5,307	—
1800–1	68,888	15,984	12,819	3,165	—
1801–2	48,032	9,001	15,610	—	6,609
1802–3	49,377	8,354	18,453	—	10,099
1803–4	57,811	12,138	17,056	—	4,918
1804–5	80,712	12,924	14,227	—	1,303
1805–6	83,232	10,455	21,683	—	11,228
1806–7	104,797	7,229	24,725	—	17,496
1807–8	73,183	10,709	23,233	—	12,524
1808–9	27,749	13,270	29,300	—	16,030
Total.	865,137	180,132	228,672	31,667	80,207

The Company's imports from England consist of provisions and clothing for the troops and inhabitants of the island, which are issued from the stores at an advance on the prime cost, sufficient to cover the expences attending their importation, such as freight, insurance, &c. and of the various stores requisite for the supply of shipping, on which an advance of 50 per cent. is charged to the owners of the ships. The Company also import from China, teas, China-ware, and other commodities, and from their settlements in India, piece-goods, &c. During the period above stated, their imports amounted to £320,795.

In the same period there were advanced by the settlement the following supplies:

Company's ships	£50,390	Supplies to Madras	£3,546
King's ships and troops	37,434	Ditto ....Bencoolen	29,670
Foreign ships	4,015	Ditto ....Cape of Good Hope	26,455
Prisoners of war	3,297	Ditto ....China	29,039
On account of freight	3,077	Sundries	16,024
Supplies to Bengal	16,802	Forming a total of	219,749

The amount of the Company's assets on the island on the 30th of September, 1792, and the 30th of September, 1809, was as follows:

Cash	in 1792, was £8,609	in 1809, was £33,862	increase £25,253
European goods	12,039	79,931	67,892
Indian goods	18,270	31,138	12,868
Stores	1,908	2,698	790

forming in 1809 an increase of property from what it was in 1792, of £106,803.

COMPANY'S REVENUES, DISBURSEMENTS, ASSETS, &c.

The following is an account of the revenues and disbursements of the Island of St. Helena in the years 1792–3 to 1808–9 inclusive:

Years.	Revenues.	CHARGES.				Net Charges.
		Civil.	Military.	Buildings and Fortifications.	Total.	
	£	£	£	£	£	£
1792–3	464	9,208	23,725	1,381	34,314	33,850
1793–4	1,149	9,224	30,339	966	40,529	39,380
1794–5	1,119	9,870	30,650	1,558	42,077	40,958
1795–6	1,292	11,590	36,940	2,108	50,637	49,345
1796–7	734	9,961	32,729	1,460	44,150	43,416
1797–8	562	9,930	40,637	8,624	59,191	58,629
1798–9	729	12,283	41,807	6,077	60,167	59,438
1799–0	824	13,311	39,656	4,194	57,161	56,337
1800–1	772	13,127	43,045	2,934	59,106	58,334
1801–2	772	20,617	43,451	2,158	66,226	65,454
1802–3	836	14,589	37,944	4,462	56,995	56,159
1803–4	775	18,947	46,164	7,217	72,328	71,553
1804–5	834	14,834	59,135	6,394	80,359	79,525
1805–6	788	20,321	60,344	6,699	87,364	86,576
1806–7	785	20,546	54,178	8,176	82,900	82,115
1807–8	849	16,303	82,647	4,336	103,286	102,437
1808–9	972	11,712	69,246	3,164	84,122	83,150
Total ...	14,256	236,369	772,637	71,908	1,080,914	1,066,658

From the foregoing statement it appears that the revenues of the island during the above period were very trifling, and that the charges exceeded them to the amount of £1,066,658.

The importance of this settlement to the East India Company has occasioned the necessity of particular attention to its security, the effect of which in increased charge is apparent in the military expences and in the fortifications; but the increase of charge is likewise to be attributed to additions made to the personal allowances of the civil and military servants of the Company.

The funds for defraying the expences were derived from the following sources:—From England, in payment of bills of exchange, £317,762; in consignments of sundry goods and stores, £865,137; and in supplies from the various Presidencies in India and from China £320,795; forming a total of £1,503,694, from which is to be deducted the amount of supplies already enumerated, £219,749, leaving a balance of £1,283,945, to be appropriated to the liquidation of the charges, £1,066,658, and the net loss incurred on the sale of goods, £48,450, making together £1,115,108. Of the amount then remaining, £106,803 is accounted for in the increased property; and the remainder is expended in various articles of military stores, &c.

The Company are possessed of property on the island to the amount of £139,818, which, from not being considered as immediately available, is not inserted in the foregoing accounts. This property consists of buildings and fortifications, plantations, household furniture, plate, slaves, boats and vessels, and of military and other stores. In 1792 the amount of this description of property was only £77,229, being an increase in the above period of £62,589.

The following are extracts from the Company's instructions relative to St. Helena:

When dispatched from India or China, you are to use your utmost endeavours to round the Cape of Good Hope, and proceed to the Island of St. Helena, if not otherwise directed; observing to fall in to the eastward of the island, and carefully run down upon it, to prevent surprise. On your approach, make the private signal, and forward your boat with a letter to the Governor, laying to at a proper distance till the signal is answered, and your boat is returning; nor are you to pass Banks's Battery till you have the Governor's leave.

You are not to depend on a supply of salt provisions from St. Helena, or appropriate to your ship's use any of the stores intended for the island.

You are particularly cautioned not to let your officers or crew be the occasion of any tumult or disturbance there, as you will answer to us for any mischief your authority or exertion could have prevented.

Anchors, cables, topmasts, and other stores being sent to St. Helena, in order to prevent any plea or motive for putting into Ireland, or any western port, you are directed, if in want of those articles, to apply to our Governor in Council, who, being satisfied of your wants, will supply you accordingly, at 50 per cent. advance.

On your arrival at St. Helena in war time, in order to prevent surprise, or the consequences of any attack, you are required to attend to the directions of your senior officer for the birthing of your ship, in order to resist an enemy in the most effectual manner, by veering away, and thus bringing the guns of the whole fleet to bear, or by any other disposition which may be concerted for your defence.

PORT REGULATIONS.

Ships touching at the island, are to have the preference of assistance in the following order:

I. British men of war, which are to have the use of both cranes, if they require it, until they are watered.

II. Ships with Company's stores are to have one crane to themselves, and their turn at the other.

III. English Indiamen.

IV. English whalers.

V. Foreign men of war.

VI. Foreign merchant ships.

Any commander of a British ship, who wishes to water at Lemon Valley, must first apply to the Town Major for permission.

No boat is to make fast to the hawsers, or buoys, at either crane, but the boat that is under the crane; those waiting for their turn, must ride by their respective grapnels, or lie upon their oars, until the boat, then under the crane, haul out, and leave a vacancy.

No boat is to lie close to either stairs longer than necessity absolutely requires; but to keep at a sufficient distance to allow other boats to approach.

None but King's boats, or the boats of Government, are permitted to pass to the windward beyond the battery, at the point under Sugar-loaf, nor to board, or to have intercourse with any ship coming in, before such ship shall have anchored.

No foreigner can, on any pretence whatever, be permitted to go into the country, nor land on any other part of the island, but James's Valley.

None but boats belonging to British men of war are allowed to land at any other part of the island but James's Valley, without permission from the Governor.

such vessels were built or bought in Sweden, and whatever else should be necessary for equipping them, to be had in the Swedish dominions.

The ships to carry the Swedish flag, and be furnished with the King's passports, and those of the Republic of Algiers.

The Company to be at liberty to raise what sum they might think fit for carrying on their commerce.

The Company might transport what ordnance or small arms they required, as also silver, coined or uncoined, Swedish money only excepted, and bring from the Indies what goods or manufactures they thought fit, without restriction.

The vessels of the Company, when freighted and ready to sail, should not be stopped, or hindered on any pretence whatever, nor should they be impeded from entering the port to which they were consigned on their return.

The Captains of the Company's ships should have the like powers for maintaining discipline amongst their crews as the commanders of the King's ships; and the seamen or soldiers entered on board, should not be liable to be pressed into the King's service; and, on the other hand, the Company should not take into their service any who should have deserted that of the Crown.

The ships being returned and entered, having the merchandise on board them, the goods should be duty free, except only a very small acknowledgment to be paid on removing them.

The concerns to be managed by three Directors, natives of Sweden, or naturalized Swedes, Protestants, and resident in the King's dominions, unless absent in foreign parts for the service of the Company, in which case the proprietors might substitute another Director at home.

The Company might make such regulations for the management of their commerce as they should think proper, provided they were agreeable to this charter.

The Company should render a faithful account to all the persons interested, as well of their profits and losses as of their capital; but they should not be obliged to discover the names of their subscribers, or the sums they subscribed; nor should they be obliged to produce, or suffer their books to be inspected, on any pretence whatsoever.

In case any of the Directors should find that the rest betrayed their secrets, or were guilty of any other fraud or misdemeanour, such Director should be suspended, and another chosen in his room.

The Company to employ what number of supracargoes, officers, mariners, or soldiers they should think fit, either Swedes or foreigners; the latter when employed, to enjoy the same privileges as if they were born Swedes, and upon application to the King, might become naturalized Swedes. The money employed in the capital of the Company should not be liable to any stoppage, or seizure.

In case the Company were molested in their commerce in any part of the world, they should have full powers from the King to obtain ample justice and satisfaction, by all convenient methods, and should be at liberty to oppose force by force, and to consider such disturbers as pirates and enemies; and should they be attacked, or suffer any injury or injustice from any other nation, in the carrying on of this commerce, the King, upon information thereof, would endeavour to procure them speedy and ample satisfaction, either by way of reprisal, or otherwise.

All other subjects of the Crown of Sweden were expressly prohibited and forbid to engage in, or interfere with the trade of the Company, under pain of his Majesty's high displeasure, and confiscation of their vessels and effects.

The King promised to alter or augment these privileges upon application from the Company, in such manner as should be found necessary for promoting the trade to the East Indies.

There were great expectations formed of this Company, from the care that had been taken in drawing up their charter; and though their capital was unlimited, such a proportion of it was immediately raised, as enabled the Directors to make the necessary dispositions for dispatching two ships.

As soon as this charter was granted, the King of Sweden caused it to be notified to the States General of Holland in July, 1731, that he had erected such a Company, who were expressly restrained by their charter from interfering with, or disturbing the trade of any Christian nation whatever in those parts; and that as, in the course of so long a voyage, the Swedish Company's vessels might be obliged, by stress of weather, or other accidents, to take shelter in some of the ports or roads of some of the Dutch settlements in India, he hoped, in such case, they would receive the same testimonies of kindness and humanity they were accustomed to shew to other nations. The States General answered they were disposed to the most strict friendship with him; but as His Majesty could not be ignorant that the Company established by him, must be prejudicial to the interests of that long since established in Holland, he could not expect that they should favour this new Company, though they were ready at all times to afford succours to His Swedish Majesty's subjects.

The Directors of the Company caused two new ships to be built, one of which was called the Frederic, King of Sweden, and the other, in honour of the Queen, the Ulrica, very strong and complete, of proper force, and every way fitted for the voyage in which they were to be employed. On board one of them the King of Sweden sent a person as a Consul to China, to manage the Company's affairs there. These ships proceeded to Canton, where they were favourably received, and obtained cargoes for proceeding to Europe. On the return of the Frederic through the Straits of Sunda, she was taken by seven Dutch ships sent from Batavia for the purpose, and carried into that port.

On the arrival of this intelligence in Europe, His Swedish Majesty sent orders to his Minister at the Hague, to present a memorial to the States General, which was done on the 11th of August, 1733. In this memorial he expressed His Majesty's surprise at the unjust and violent proceeding of the Dutch at Batavia, so contrary to the friendship which their High Mightinesses had assured the King they would always maintain towards His Majesty and his subjects; and that, notwithstanding the harshness of the action, His Majesty had still so high an idea of their High Mightinesses, as not barely to believe they had given orders for the excesses committed on the Company's ship, Frederic, but was also persuaded that, in case it was not already done, they would order, without the least delay, the said Swedish ship, her cargo, and equipage to be released, and also give a just, full, and proportionate satisfaction for the indignity offered to Sweden, as well as repair whatever loss the Swedish East India Company had sustained. The memorial also required their High Mightinesses instantly to send their orders that the other Swedish ship, the Ulrica, might return from the East Indies freely, without impediment or injury from the subjects of the Republic; His Majesty being firmly resolved to protect and maintain his subjects in the enjoyment of the privileges granted them by his charter for establishing a trade with China.

The States General, perceiving, by the language of this memorial, that this was likely to become an important affair, sent immediately to the East India Directors, to know what it was that had given occasion to the Regency at Batavia to act in this manner. The Directors replied, that they had sent no order relative to any such transaction; and as their letters made no mention of it, they hoped the consideration of the affair would be deferred till they had received advice concerning it from Batavia. The States General therefore answered the Swedish Minister, that he might assure the King, his master, that neither they nor the Company had ever given any orders of this kind, and that they still held the same sentiments of friendship and cordiality towards the Swedish nation as they had formerly possessed. The ship was soon after dismissed from Batavia, and returned to Sweden; since which period the Swedish East India Company have been suffered to carry on their trade without the least interruption, but which is solely confined to China.

Sweden, possessing no articles of trade suitable to the Chinese taste, the East India ships touch at Cadiz on their outward-bound voyage, where they dispose of a few goods of Swedish manufacture, and take on board sufficient silver for the purchase of their homeward investments.

Any ship or vessel approaching the roads with a yellow flag, is to be considered under quarantine so long as it shall remain hoisted.

The commanders of ships, not in the Company's regular employ, and foreigners on their arrival in the port, before application for water, or any other refreshment, are first to give bond or security, in the Secretary's office, against taking any person from the island, or leaving any person on it, without permission from Government. The certificate of their having signed such bond is to be delivered to the Master Attendant, to whom the charges for anchorage, boat-hire, &c. are to be paid.

The commanders of all ships to give forty-eight hours' notice to the Governor before they intend to sail, and are not to sail after sunset in the evening, nor before sunrise in the morning; for the due observance of which they shall give bond, if required, as before mentioned.

No gunpowder is to be landed without previous notice being given to the Commissary of Stores and Master Attendant, in order that proper precautions may be adopted to prevent accidents.

PROVISIONS AND REFRESHMENTS.

The beef here is excellent; but in consequence of the small number of cattle on the island, and the great demand for the King's and Company's shipping, who are generally allowed two fresh meals in a week during their stay, they seldom attain the age of four years. Salt meat is therefore the principal food of the inhabitants and garrison: it is issued from the Company's stores at prime cost, and other articles, as flour, peas, tea, sugar, rice, &c. at a small advance, covering freight and expences. The price of beef is 6½d. per lb. alive, which makes it expensive. The other articles of provision procurable here vary in their price according to the demand.

	s. d.	s. d.
Mutton	from 1 2	to 1 6 per lb.
Pork	1 6	to 1 8 ditto.
Grown fowls	9 0	to 12 0 each.
Turkeys	31 6	to 42 0 ditto.
Geese	21 0	to 25 0 ditto.
Ducks	10 0	to 12 0 ditto.
Mackarel	0 8	to 1 0 per doz.
Bull's eyes	0 9	to 1 2 ditto.

	£. s. d.	£. s. d.
Potatoes	from 8 0	to 10 0 per bushel.
Cabbages	1 3	to 1 6 each.
Pumpkins	2 0	to 2 6 ditto.
Eggs	4 0	to 5 0 per dozen.
Milk	0 4	to 0 5 per quart.
Apples	0 1	to 0 2 each.
Turtle	0 6	to 0 9 per lb.
Conger eels, &c.	0 3	to 0 4 ditto.

Of fish there is a great variety round the island, most of them excellent, and they are to be purchased cheap. The fruits met with are grapes, figs, plantains, guavas, oranges, lemons, apples, &c. and of vegetables, cabbages, yams, and potatoes: of the latter great quantities are produced on the island, and are in general of the best kind. Fresh water is conveyed from a spring in the valley by leaden pipes to the wharf, and from thence into the boats, but generally the casks are landed, filled, and hoisted into the boats; the water is excellent, and any quantity may be procured without delay. There is another watering place in Lemon Valley, which is esteemed the best water, and you fill the casks in the boat with a hose; only it is a little further to fetch it. Firewood is very scarce, and procured with great difficulty.

The officers of ships and passengers during their stay on the island are accommodated with board and lodging in the houses of the principal inhabitants, for which they pay in proportion to the existing price of fresh provisions, which varies from 20s. to 30s. per day, and half as much for each child or servant, for which, with the assistance of a piece of roasting beef occasionally from the ships, an excellent table is kept, and no expence spared.

RISE AND PROGRESS

OF THE

COMMERCE BETWEEN SWEDEN AND THE EAST INDIES.

The Swedes were for many ages inattentive to commerce, and were among the last of the European nations to engage in speculations to the East Indies.

Their first attempt was in the reign of Gustavus Adolphus. This Prince, who was the glory of his age and country, formed the project of an East India Company, by letters patent under his great seal, dated at Stockholm, June 14, 1626, by which he invited such as were desirous of obtaining a share in the profits of this advantageous trade, to form a plan for conducting it; but the wars in Germany which followed soon after, and engrossed his attention during the remaining part of his reign, prevented the design from taking effect.

Although his successor shewed the same inclination to promote the trade, and consequently the naval power of Sweden, and actually settled a colony in the West Indies, there were very few attempts made with regard to commerce till about 1726; the wars in which the nation had been engaged previous to that period, having drawn their attention from such objects.

1731. The suspension of the Ostend Company having thrown out of employment a number of men possessed of capital and abilities for conducting trade, Mr. Henry Koning, an eminent merchant at Stockholm, formed the scheme of establishing an East India Company in Sweden. He represented to the King and his ministers that there were various parts of Asia and Africa to which an advantageous commerce might be carried on without infringing treaties, or breaking in upon the trade of other nations; that this was what Sweden had a right to at all times, but that there never was a juncture in which she might avail herself of that right with so much facility as at present; that it was impossible to undertake an enterprise of this nature without the assistance of foreigners, as well in contributing to the expence with which it would be necessarily attended, as in entering into a service that the Swedes were as yet unacquainted with; that many persons who had withdrawn their money from the Ostend Company, were desirous of employing it elsewhere, more especially if it could be done with secrecy; and that there might be easily found persons every way capable of conducting such a design in its infancy, if the opportunity were embraced. Upon mature deliberation, his proposal was accepted, and his Swedish Majesty granted him a charter for his new Company, dated June 14, 1731, precisely 105 years after the letters patent of Gustavus Adolphus for the like purpose.

The substance of this charter granted to Henry Koning and his associates was—

The liberty of navigating and trading to the East Indies for fifteen years, with the inhabitants of all countries from the Cape of Good Hope to Japan, with this single restriction, that they should not trade in any port belonging to any state in Europe, without free leave first had and obtained.

The ships employed in the commerce were constantly to take in their lading at Gottenburgh, to which port they were to return with all the merchandise they should bring from the East Indies, and cause the same to be publicly sold, as soon as they conveniently could.

The Company to pay to the Crown of Sweden, during the said fifteen years, 100 dalers per last for every ship they should employ, the ships to be measured previous to their departure from Gottenburgh; and 2 dalers per last in full satisfaction for town duties.

The Company might employ, equip, and man as many vessels as they should think proper, provided

1746. In this year the Company's charter was renewed, and the term of their exclusive trade prolonged to 1766. The number of ships dispatched from Sweden, from the commencement of their trade in 1732 to 1746, were 25, three of which were destined to India, and the remainder to China; of these four were lost.

1753. From the first establishment of the Company, each member had the option of withdrawing his capital upon the termination of the voyage for which it was subscribed. In this year it was agreed that the capital should in future be permanent; and that any proprietor desirous of withdrawing his property, should find a purchaser for it, agreeable to the practice of the other European Companies. The King, in order to enable the Company to stand their ground against the competition of a new Company formed at Embden, agreed to a commutation duty of 20 per cent. upon the value of the East India goods consumed within the kingdom, instead of the lastage duty, hitherto paid by every ship for each voyage.

The following is a statement of the cargo of a Swedish East Indiaman from China:

1,030,642 lbs. Bohea tea, in 2,885 chests.	5,047 lbs. raw silk, in 33 chests.
96,589 ditto Congou tea, in 1,359 ditto.	35,314 ditto galangal root.
67,388 ditto Souchong tea, in 1,940 ditto.	6,559 ditto China root.
17,205 ditto Pekoe tea, in 323 ditto.	2,165 ditto mother of pearl.
6,670 ditto Bing tea, in 119 ditto.	6,325 ditto thin canes for hoops.
7,930 ditto Hyson Skin, in 140 ditto.	10,709 ditto sago.
2,206 ditto Hyson, in 31 tubs.	4,171 ditto rhubarb, in 24 chests.
3,557 ditto several sorts in canisters.	9,314 ditto painted paper.
961 pieces Poisles damask.	1,250 pieces flowers.
67 ditto, two colours.	3,400 jettoons of mother of pearl.
143 ditto damask for furniture.	62 ditto, 10 in a set.
673 ditto satin.	108 japanned quadrille boxes.
31 ditto coloured and flowered.	18 ditto toilet tables.
681 ditto paduasoy.	10 ditto tablets.
192 ditto gorgoron.	6 tons arrack.
1,291 ditto taffaties.	274 chests of China-ware.
16 ditto lampasses.	989 tubs and other packages of ditto,
5,319 ditto Nankeen cloth.	and several trifling articles.

1766. The East India Company's charter was again renewed for a further term of 20 years; and on this occasion the Company were obliged to advance the Government about £100,000 sterling, at 6 per cent. interest, and about half as much more without interest; and for the payment of the latter sum they were to be allowed to retain in their hands the duty payable upon every ship, till the whole of the debt should be thereby cancelled.

The number of ships sent from Sweden, in the years 1746 to 1765 inclusive, was 36, of which three were destined to Surat, and the remainder to China; of these only one was lost.

The progress of the Swedish Company, by far the best regulated and most prosperous in Europe, was very rapid; and if the Commutation Act, which took place in England in 1784, had not intervened, they would have enjoyed the greatest part of the China trade. Their imports into China consisted of silver, the most beneficial mode of carrying on the trade; and for the deficiency which their capital could not supply, they received money in China against the drafts of their supracargoes on the Directors of the Company in Sweden.

1812. The following is an account of the number of Swedish ships which have been loaded at Canton from the year 1766 to the present period, with the quantity of teas shipped on board them:

1767–8	2 ships	lbs. 3,066,143	1787–8	2 ships	lbs. 2,890,900
1768–9	2	3,186,220	1788–9	2	2,589,000
1769–70	1	1,494,509	1789–90	none.	
1770–1	2	3,076,642	1790–1	none.	
1771–2	no account	about 3,000,000	1791–2	1	1,591,330
1772–3	2	2,746,800	1792–3	1	1,559,730
1773–4	1	1,489,700	1793–4	1	756,130
1774–5	2	3,088,100	1794–5	none.	
1775–6	2	2,562,500	1795–6	2	2,759,800
1776–7	2	3,049,100	1796–7	none.	
1777–8	2	2,851,200	1797–8	2	1,406,200
1778–9	2	3,258,000	1798–9	1	1,408,400
1779–80	2	2,626,400	1799–1800	1	444,800
1780–1	3	4,108,900	1800–1	2	2,202,400
1781–2	2	3,267,300	1801–2	none.	
1782–3	3	4,265,600	1802–3	2	1,427,067
1783–4	3	4,878,900	1803–4	none.	
1784–5	none.		1804–5	2	2,352,665
1785–6	4	6,212,400	1805–6	none.	
1786–7	1	1,747,700	1806–7	none.	

From the above statement it appears that in the first period of 20 years, there were exported from China in 40 ships, belonging to the Swedish East India Company, 60,976,114 lbs. of tea; and that in the latter period there were only 19 ships loaded from China, in which were exported 21,385,423 lbs. of tea, rather more than one-third of the quantity previous to the passing of the Commutation Act in England.

The unsettled state of public affairs in Sweden for some years past has prevented the East India Company from carrying on any trade; and the non-payment of the sums advanced by them to Government, has involved their affairs in embarrassment and confusion.

ASCENSION.

This island is about 250 leagues N. W. of St. Helena. It is three leagues long from north to south, and about two from east to west, and evidently of volcanic origin. It is covered with a reddish earth, not unlike brick-dust, and the hills are strewed with a large quantity of rocks, full of holes and pumice-stones: the whole island has a dismal appearance. It may be seen about 10 leagues distant in clear weather. There are neither springs nor streams on the island; water is found in some hollows, but it very soon evaporates. There are a number of wild-goats, which are very lean; some rats and mice, and a few insects.

This island is at present only frequented on account of its turtles, of which it furnishes the finest in the world; their weight is in general from 4 to 700 lbs. and may with care and caution be taken to any extent. The anchoring place is on the N. W. side of the island, off Sandy Bay. A good mark for anchoring is to bring Cross Hill on the middle of Sandy Bay; when it bears S. S. E. and 10 fathoms, you will be about half a mile off shore. There is a great surf upon the shore, and the landing is troublesome.

The centre of the island is in latitude 7° 52′ North, and longitude 13° 54′ West.

FERDINAND NORONHA.

This island is situated near the Coast of Brazil, in latitude 3° 55′ South, and longitude 32° 35′ West; and in the event of any circumstance preventing the homeward-bound East India ships from touching at St. Helena, their instructions from the Company are to proceed to Ferdinand Noronha.

The island is about ten miles long and two broad, and is remarkable by a high rocky peak, called the Pyramid, very barren and rugged; and by its S.W. point, named the Hole in the Wall, which is pierced through, and gives a free passage to the sea. The south point is distinguishable by a little rocky islet that appears like a statue. There are two harbours capable of receiving ships of the greatest burthen; one is on the north side, and the other on the north-west. The former is in every respect the principal both for shelter, capacity, and goodness of its bottom; but both are exposed to northerly or north-west winds. There are three forts which defend the harbour, built with stone, spacious, and well-provided with large artillery. It is subject to the Portuguese Goverament of Pernambuco, and is peopled with exiles from Brazil and Portugal.

Cattle, sheep, poultry, and vegetables are to be procured here, but they are dear; water is rather a scarce article in the dry season. The well which supplies the shipping, is near the Governor's house; but the landing the casks, and getting off the water, is inconvenient, on account of the surf. The wood is cut on a small island near the north point of the large one, called the Wooding Island; but there is much difficulty in getting it off. If the Portuguese would permit the cutting wood on the main island, it might be shipped off without much danger.

The following are the expences incurred by one of the Company's ships which touched here:

Present to the Governor.....30 dollars.	Two bullocks .....40 dollars.
Three pigs, each 16 dollars.....48 ditto.	Carrying down to the beach .....10 ditto.
Eight sheep, each 3 dollars .....24 ditto.	Expences attending the watering ..24 ditto.
Three dozen fowls .....18 ditto.	Greens and sorrel ..... 9 ditto.

Vessels employed in the southern whale fishery occasionally visit the island for supplies.

AZORES; or, WESTERN ISLANDS,

Are nine in number, *viz.* Flores, Corvo, Fayal, Pico, Terceira, Gracioza, St. George, St. Michael's, and St. Mary's, exclusive of small islets or dangers contiguous to some of them.

FLORES, the westernmost island, extends about 3½ leagues North and South; the northern extremity of which, called Point Delgado, is in latitude 39° 33′ North, and longitude 31° 11′ West.

CORVO, separated from the north end of Flores by a safe channel about 4 leagues wide, is the north-westernmost of the group, its northern extremity being in latitude 39° 44′ North. There is a small bay on its S. E. side, and a village, where stock and a few refreshments may be procured.

FAYAL, the westernmost of the central group, is high, about three leagues in extent, of a circular form, and its western extremity is in latitude 38° 34′ North, and longitude 28° 52′ West. On its S. E. side is a good bay, in which the town is situated; the points forming the bay, which is nearly 1½ mile deep, bear nearly N.E. and S.W. from each other, about two miles distance. The ground is in many parts foul; and when the wind blows from the southward, a heavy sea is thrown in. The common anchorage is with the town N.W. half a mile distant.

There are several English merchants settled at Fayal, who carry on a trade with the neighbouring islands, more particularly in wine, which, though principally produced on Pico, bears the name of Fayal

wine: and in some years, from 8 to 10,000 pipes are exported, exclusive of what is retained for the consumption of the inhabitants. It also produces large quantities of corn; and provisions and refreshments of all kinds are to be procured.

PICO is separated by a narrow channel from Fayal. The peak from which the island takes its name, is situated near the S. W. part, in latitude 38° 27' North, and longitude 28° 28' West; it is a very remarkable mountain, of a circular form, and terminating on its summit in the figure of a sugar-loaf, extremely regular in its shape. It is 7,000 feet above the level of the sea, and in fine weather may be seen 25 leagues. This island has several towns well inhabited, and produces yearly from 16 to 24,000 pipes of a white wine, of a remarkably salubrious quality, something between Madeira and Hock; this wine has of late years been much improved; it becomes quite mellow in about three years, or in about eight months, if sent on a sea voyage. The Passado, or Fayal Malmsey, is peculiar to the island. The method of making it is as follows: when the grapes are ripe, the choicest bunches are culled, and exposed for fifteen days on large lava stones, and the grapes are turned every day, so that all the watery particles are exhaled; when afterwards compressed, their juice is quite thick and luscious, and brandy is put in to preserve it, so that it becomes quite a cordial. The chief exportation of wine is to the West Indies, for the use of the British navy and army. As the principal part of the island of Pico belongs to the inhabitants of Fayal, all the wine is shipped off from the latter, and thus it is called Fayal wine. Besides cedar, and other timber, it produces a wood called Teixo, which is extremely hard, and when polished, is beautifully veined, and of a bright scarlet colour; it is highly esteemed, and is reserved for the use of the Portuguese Court.

ST. GEORGE is about three leagues from Pico. There is a small road on the south side of the island, and a town called Villa de Vallas, where the small vessels belonging to the island lie sheltered from every wind.

GRACIOSA is separated from the north end of St. George by a safe channel, about eight leagues wide. The principal town is Santa Cruz on the N. E. side of the island, where vessels anchor. The produce of this island and St. George is sent to Terceira in small vessels built here.

TERCEIRA.—This island is about eight leagues from the S. E. point of St. George; it is about six leagues in length from East to West, and of a moderate height. Its principal bays are Porto Praya on the N. E. and Angra on the S. E. side.

Porto Praya Bay is the largest and best in the western islands, and is capable of receiving a fleet of ships at its anchorage; it is in the form of a crescent. Vessels may anchor in 16 to 20 fathoms, the town bearing from N.W. to N. N. W. There is a good landing-place for boats near the castle.

Angra Bay is known by means of a remarkable forked hill near the sea, named Mount Brazil; the bay is about half a mile broad, and open to all winds from S.S.W. by the South to the East. The S.W. sea in particular, which sets round Mount Brazil on the west side of the bay, is tremendous. The ground, excepting a very small part of it, is so rocky, as to make it requisite to moor with four anchors. Vessels may safely remain in the roads from May to September, when the winds are light, and blow from between West and N. W. At the commencement of winter the winds are so violent, that upon the least appearance of bad weather, it is necessary to put to sea, the coast affording no shelter.

The city of Angra, in latitude 38° 39 North, and longitude 27° 12 West, is the metropolis of the Azores, and the residence of the Governor. It is well built and peopled, and is an Episcopal See, under the Archbishopric of Lisbon; it has five parishes, one of which, St. Salvador, is the cathedral; four monasteries, and four nunneries. It is surrounded with strong works, and has a large castle mounted with heavy cannon.

In this city are kept the royal magazines for naval stores, for the men of war and merchant ships. The maritime affairs are under an officer, called the Desembargador, who has persons under him who pilot ships into the bay, supply them with provisions, water, and other refreshments, which are here plentiful, and at very moderate prices.

St. MICHAEL'S, separated from Terceira by a safe channel, about 24 leagues wide, is the longest of the Azores, being 10 or 11 leagues in extent East and West, and only two or three in breadth. The principal town, called Ponta del Gado, is on the south side of the island, where vessels anchor in a small bay near the shore; but it affords little shelter from the storms that frequently happen in winter. The west point of the island is in latitude 37° 54 North, and longitude 25° 59 West. The town has a handsome appearance from the sea. The principal fortification is the Castle of St. Braz, which is close to the sea, at the western extremity of the town; it is mounted with twenty-four pieces of cannon, the greater part of which are in a disabled state. About three miles to the eastward are two small forts. There is a mole for the protection of the small craft, which might at a small expence be made capable of receiving vessels of a considerable draught of water.

St. Michael's is the largest in extent in square miles of any of the Western Islands, and is the most productive of all kinds of grain, as well as animal and vegetable food; it may with propriety be termed the granary of Lisbon, as, upon a moderate computation, in a year of favourable crops, it produces grain sufficient for ten times the number of its inhabitants. The population has been estimated at 100,000.

The commerce of St. Michael's with Great Britain is very extensive; from thence the Portuguese natives are supplied with the various commodities suitable to their wants, which are similar to those enumerated at Madeira: in exchange for which, about fifty or sixty vessels sail annually with fruit, to the extent of from 60 to 80,000 boxes of oranges and lemons.

From the United States of America are received staves, rice, fish, pitch, tar, iron, and a variety of East India goods, which are paid for chiefly in wine.

The principal productions of St. Michael's are Indian corn, wheat, barley, broad beans, and calavances, an immense quantity of the finest oranges and lemons, grapes of every sort, and melons, with various other fruits. Poultry and eggs are easily procured at a very small expence, as well as an abundant supply of vegetables. Turkies and sheep are to be got, but they are very indifferent. Butter is difficult to be met with.

Provisions and refreshments of all kinds are to be procured at reasonable prices.

ST. MARY'S, the easternmost of the Azores, is about 12 leagues to the southward of St. Michael's; the west point is in latitude 36° 57 North, and longitude 25° 16 West. On the south side of the island are a small bay and town, frequented by small coasting vessels.

FINIS.

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